

Chapter 3

***In vivo* screening of endophytic *Fusarium oxysporum*
isolates for activity against *Radopholus similis* in tissue
culture banana plants**

Abstract

The effects of nine endophytic *Fusarium oxysporum* isolates on *Radopholus similis* were tested in tissue culture plants of the East African highland banana cultivar Enyeru (*Musa* spp. AAA-EA). A series of nine screen house experiments were conducted to determine the effects of the fungal isolates on *R. similis* reproduction rate, nematode damage and plant growth and to determine *in vivo* consistency in the biological control activity of the fungal isolates. Tissue culture plants at the weaning stage were inoculated with fungal isolates by immersing plant roots in a spore suspension for 2 hrs and acclimatized in a humidity chamber for 1 month. Plants were transferred to loamy soil in 3-liter plastic bags in the screen house. Eight weeks after endophyte inoculation, plants were inoculated with 500 *R. similis* mixed stages and harvested 8 weeks later. Endophyte treatments did not significantly affect *R. similis* female, juvenile or male densities, although in most experiments there was a trend for endophyte-treated plants to have less nematodes than untreated plants. The reduction in nematode populations in endophyte-treated plants ranged between 1.08% to 59.34%. When the damage caused by the nematodes was presented as a percentage of necrotic root tissue, it was not reduced by endophyte treatment. Although endophyte treatment did not significantly enhance plant growth, endophyte-treated plants tended to have higher fresh root and shoot weights, as well as higher dry shoot weights than the untreated plants. Plant height, the number of standing leaves, and the length and width of the youngest leaf were also not significantly affected by endophyte treatment. The performance of introduced fungal isolates was inconsistent and varied between repeat experiments.

Introduction

The use of nematode-infested suckers as planting material is the main avenue for introducing these pests to new banana fields (O'Bannon, 1977; Sarah, 1989). Due to the unrestricted movement of nematode-infested suckers, the spread of *Radopholus similis* Cobb (Thorne) and other nematode species continues. The main control measure of *R. similis* to small-scale farmers, therefore, involves the use of clean planting material such as pared or hot water treated suckers (Speijer *et al.*, 1999) and tissue culture (TC) banana plants (Mateille *et al.*, 1994). TC plants offer additional benefits to banana production such as rapid multiplication rates, higher yields and uniformity of plants (Robinson, 1996). However, the use of TC plants by most small-scale farmers is limited by availability and cost. A number of studies have also shown that TC plants are more susceptible to nematode and disease attack in the field than plants derived from suckers (De Waele *et al.*, 1997; Stanton, 1999; Viaene *et al.*, 2003; Blomme *et al.*, 2004). Re-infestation of clean planting material in the field further renders the use of healthy planting material only a temporary solution to nematode problems in banana (Speijer *et al.*, 1995; Speijer *et al.*, 2001).

A nematode management strategy that can complement the benefits of TC banana plants is important to develop. The artificial introduction of beneficial microorganisms, such as endophytic fungi, may protect TC plants against pests and diseases in their early growth stages (Sikora and Schuster, 1999; Sikora *et al.*, 2000b). The low levels of fungal inoculum required to treat TC plants with endophytes further makes it a viable option for nematode management in banana.

Biological control of *R. similis* in TC banana plants using endophytic *Fusarium* isolates has been demonstrated in the laboratory and screen house. Pocasangre (2000) reported lower *R. similis* populations in TC banana plants treated with unidentified fungal endophytes that were originally isolated from Cavendish banana plants in Central America, than in non-endophyte treated plants. Similarly, Niere (2001) demonstrated that some endophytic *Fusarium oxysporum* Schlecht.: Fries isolates suppressed *R. similis* densities in banana roots to varying degrees in Uganda. He further reported that the efficiency of nematode suppression depended on the banana cultivar colonized, and that some endophytes stimulated plant growth. With his work, Niere (2001) provided the background and foundation for the current study. The four

experiments he conducted, however, included plants of different ages and inoculated with different nematode densities. Replications per treatment were few, ranging from five to nine, and due to limitations in availability of TC plants, experiments were not repeated. It was, therefore, difficult to derive conclusive evidence as to how effective the fungal isolates were in controlling *R. similis*.

Various endophytic *Fusarium* isolates produce secondary metabolites antagonistic to motile stages and eggs of *R. similis* (Chapter 2), suggesting that these fungal isolates may control *R. similis* in the plant. The objective of the current study was to screen the nine *F. oxysporum* isolates studied by Niere (2001) to (i) determine the effect of endophyte treatment on *R. similis* reproduction and damage in TC banana plants (ii) assess the effect of endophyte infection on the plant's growth and performance and (iii) evaluate consistency in the performance of fungal isolates in repeat screen house experiments.

Materials and methods

Site description

All experiments were carried out in a screen house at the International Institute of Tropical Agriculture (IITA) Research Station in Namulonge, Uganda, approximately 30 km northeast of Kampala. The site is situated at approximately 1,150 m above sea level, 32° 34'N latitude, with a mean annual rainfall of 1,255 mm and an average daily temperature of 22°C.

Tissue culture plants

The East African highland cooking banana cultivar Enyeru (*Musa* spp. AAA-EA) was selected for all *in vivo* screening experiments, based on its popularity (Karamura *et al.*, 1993) and its susceptibility to *R. similis* (Speijer and Ssango, 1999). Plants were micropropagated from sword suckers in tissue culture using standard shoot-tip culture protocols for banana as outlined by Vuylsteke (1998). Cultures were initiated from explant materials collected from the IITA germplasm collection in Namulonge, Uganda. The initiation medium was based on the Murashige and Skoog (1962) mineral salt mixture (MS) with some modifications as

suggested by Vuylsteke (1998) (Table 1). The initiation medium was amended with 5 g/l benzyl amine.

Plant multiplication started 8 weeks after initiation by sub-culturing the emerging buds every 4 weeks to modified MS medium in 250-ml sterile glass jars until a sufficient number of plants were obtained for rooting. The multiplication stage took between 12 and 16 weeks, after which root growth was induced. Shoots were transferred to rooting medium for root initiation, each shoot being rooted singly in a 25 x 150 mm culture test tube. The rooting medium was amended with 0.1 mg/l naphthalene acetic acid as rooting hormone. Plants at the initiation, multiplication and rooting stages were placed in incubators at 27°C with a photoperiod of 14 hrs light and 10 hrs darkness. Four weeks after rooting, plants were removed from the test tubes and were ready for weaning and inoculation with endophytes.

Fungal isolates

The nine non-pathogenic *F. oxysporum* isolates selected for this study were originally isolated from the roots and corms of apparently healthy East African highland cooking banana plants in Uganda by Schuster *et al.* (1995) (Table 1). The isolates were selected because of their ability to immobilize and kill nematodes *in vitro* (Chapter 2; Niere, 2001). Seven out of the nine isolates had previously been studied for their effect on *R. similis* by Niere (2001). All nine isolates are maintained in soil tubes at 4 °C.

Preparation of fungal inoculum

Fungal isolates preserved in soil tubes at 4°C were re-grown on synthetic nutrient agar (SNA) (1 g KH₂PO₄, 1 g KNO₃, 0.5 g MgSO₄·7H₂O, 0.5 g KCl, 0.2 g glucose, 0.2 g sucrose, 0.6 ml NaOH (1 M) and 13.2 g agar/L distilled water) in 65-mm diameter Petri dishes under laboratory conditions (± 25°C and a natural photoperiod of 12 hrs light and 12 hrs darkness) for 7 days. The SNA medium was supplemented with 10 mg chlortetracycline, 100 mg penicillin G and 50 mg streptomycin-sulphate per liter to prevent bacterial contamination. Spore suspensions for inoculating banana plants were produced in 500-ml Erlenmeyer flasks containing 200 ml of half strength potato dextrose broth (PDB) (Sigma-Aldrich). Half strength PDB was prepared by dissolving 12 g of PDB per liter of sterile distilled water

(SDW). The flasks containing PDB were sterilized (autoclaved at 121 °C for 15 min) and allowed to cool down.

Mycelial blocks of each fungal isolate were cut from 1-week-old cultures on SNA and aseptically transferred to the PDB under laminar airflow. Two replicate flasks were prepared for each fungal isolate. Two flasks containing non-inoculated broth served as controls. Flasks were incubated under laboratory conditions for 1 week to allow for fungal sporulation. Each day, flasks were manually shaken to disperse spores throughout the medium. Fungal spores were harvested by filtering the suspension through a 1-mm-diameter sieve to remove mycelial fragments. Spore densities were then estimated using a haemocytometer and the suspensions standardized to provide a final spore concentration of 1.5 to 1.75 x 10⁶ spores / ml. The spore suspensions were either diluted with SDW or concentrated to achieve the required spore concentration. To concentrate, the spore suspensions were left to settle for a few hours and some broth at the top of the solution siphoned off.

Radopholus similis cultures

Pure nematode cultures of *R. similis* were multiplied on carrot disks in 30-mm-diameter glass Petri dishes according to the procedure of Speijer and De Waele (1997). Nematode infested banana plant roots were obtained from the IITA fields, cut into small pieces and macerated in a Waring blender (Waring, Connecticut, USA) at low speed for 15 s. Nematodes were extracted overnight from the macerated roots using the modified Baermann method (Hooper *et al.*, 2005). Individual *R. similis* females were handpicked from the nematode suspension obtained and surface sterilized with a 600-ppm streptomycin sulphate solution. Fresh carrots were surface sterilized by dipping in absolute ethanol followed by flaming, cut into discs of ca. 0.5 cm diameter and placed in sterile 30-mm diameter glass Petri dishes. The sterilized females were inoculated on the cortex regions of the sterile carrot discs and the Petri dishes sealed with parafilm. The carrot discs were incubated at 27 °C for 3 - 4 weeks after which nematodes were harvested from the Petri dishes for experiments.

Inoculation of plants with fungal isolates

When ready for weaning (4 weeks after plants were transferred to rooting medium), TC plants were removed from test tubes and selected for uniformity in size. Roots were rinsed in tap water to remove adhering medium and cut back to ca. 2 cm long to mimic natural wounding and enhance fungal infection. The roots were then immersed in the various spore suspensions or sterile PDB (controls) for 2 hrs, ensuring that all roots were submerged (Niere, 2001). Flasks were shaken occasionally to re-suspend spores in the solution. After inoculation, the plants were potted in 150-ml plastic pots containing steam-sterilized loamy forest soil. The different treatments (fungal isolates or control) plants were placed on separate plastic trays and transferred to a humidity chamber (1.92 m high x 1.59 m long x 1.23 m wide) for 1 month. The humidity chamber was constructed from a wooden frame covered with a clear polythene sheet. The humidity chamber was misted regularly by spraying the interior with tap water to maintain a high humidity level. After 1 month in the humidity chamber, plants were transplanted into 3-liter plastic bags containing steam-sterilized loamy forest soil, and transferred to the screen house.

Inoculation of plants with nematodes

Plants were inoculated with nematodes 8 weeks after endophyte inoculation. Pure cultures of *R. similis* were obtained from carrot disk cultures and suspensions of the nematodes in SDW collected in a beaker. The nematode suspension density was estimated using a light microscope (magnification x 100) and standardized to provide 500 female and juvenile nematodes/2 ml SDW. Males were not taken into account when preparing nematode inoculum because they are not infective (Speijer and De Waele, 1997). To inoculate plants with nematodes, three holes of ca. 3-5 cm deep were made in the soil at the base of the plant around the roots using a 0.5 cm-diameter stick. Care was taken not to damage the plants roots when drilling the holes. The three holes were made around the roots at equal distances from each other. The nematode suspension was pipetted into the holes at a rate of ca. 0.6 ml per hole after which the holes were covered with soil. Plants were not watered until 24 hrs after inoculation to enable the nematodes to enter the roots, and to avoid washing away the nematodes. After nematode inoculation, plants were maintained in the screen house for 8 weeks and watered daily. This time would permit for at least two nematode generations.

Experimental design and layout

Experiments to determine the effect of endophytic *F. oxysporum* isolates on *R. similis* reproduction and damage to TC banana plants, and their effects on plant growth and performance were conducted between May 2002 and January 2003, with an overlap in experimental timeframes between sequential experiments. All experiments were conducted in a completely randomized design under similar screen house conditions. The number of plants per treatment ranged from 14 to 25, depending on the availability of TC plants, and the experiments were repeated nine times. The duration of each experiment was 16 weeks, from the time of weaning to termination of the experiment.

Assessment of plant growth parameters

Plant growth parameters (plant height, number of healthy standing leaves and the length and width of the youngest leaf) were measured on a monthly basis for the duration of each experiment. Plant height was measured as the distance from the point where the youngest leaf emerges from the pseudostem to the base of the plant while the width of the youngest leaf was measured at the widest point on the youngest leaf. Leaves were considered healthy when more than three quarters of the leaf area was green as opposed to yellow or brown and dry leaves.

Assessment of nematode reproduction and damage

At termination of an experiment (8 weeks after nematode inoculation), plants were uprooted from the plastic bags and washed free of soil with tap water. For each plant, the number of dead and functional roots was recorded. The fresh roots and shoots were weighed, and the dry shoot weight determined after drying shoots in an oven at 70°C for 48 hrs. Nematode damage was expressed as a percentage of the necrotic root tissue, as described by Speijer and Gold (1996) (Fig. 1). To estimate the percentage root necrosis, five functional roots were randomly selected from each plant and cut to ca. 10-cm-long segments. The root segments were sliced lengthwise and the percentage of visible necrotic cortical region determined. Each root represented a maximum percentage root necrosis of 20% with the five roots per plant adding up to a total of 100% root necrosis.

The five root segments used for estimating nematode damage were further cut into 0.5-cm-long pieces with a knife, thoroughly mixed, and a 5-g sub-sample taken for nematode extraction. Nematode extraction was performed according to the modified Baermann funnel method (Hooper *et al.*, 2005). The nematode extraction apparatus consisted of a sieve of ca. 2 cm deep and 15 cm in diameter made out of a plastic ring, the base of which was covered with plastic netting with ca. 1 mm diameter openings. The sieve was placed in a shallow plastic plate of 20 cm in diameter and overlaid with tissue paper. The root samples were macerated in a Waring Blender at low speed for 15 s and the suspension poured onto the tissue paper in the sieve. The plastic plate was filled with tap water to a level that just covered the macerated root pieces. Nematodes were extracted overnight, during which time they migrated from the macerated root tissue into the water. The nematode suspension in the plastic plate was then rinsed into 100-ml glass sample bottles and stored at 4°C until counting could be done, usually within a week. Prior to counting, the nematode suspension was reduced to 25 ml. From each 25-ml sample, the nematode population density was determined in three 2-ml aliquots, and the average calculated. Female, male and juvenile *R. similis* counts were recorded separately.

Determination of fungal colonization

Endophytic colonization of banana plant roots was determined for experiments 2, 7 and 9. After harvest, three roots were randomly obtained from each plant and surface-sterilized by dipping in 100% ethanol, followed by flaming. The sterilized roots were cut into 0.25-cm long segments under sterile conditions and plated on SNA medium in 65-mm-diameter Petri dishes. From each root, 6 segments were plated per Petri dish. Petri dishes were incubated for 7 days in the laboratory. Fungal colonies growing from the root pieces were identified under a light microscope (magnification x 400). *Fusarium oxysporum* colonies were identified based on the presence of short phialides, the shape of macroconidia and the presence of chlamydospores (Nelson *et al.*, 1983). Percentage colonization was determined per Petri dish as the number of *F. oxysporum* colonies divided by the total number of pieces plated, multiplied by 100.

Data analysis

Prior to statistical analysis, all data were tested for normality and homogeneity of variances using Shapiro-Wilkinson, Levene Welch and Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests. Normal probability plots, box plots and stem leaf plots were additionally used to confirm normality of data and equality of variances. If not normally distributed, various transformations were tested until the most suitable transformation was obtained. Plant growth data was square root transformed. For plant growth parameters measured on a monthly basis, the mixed model procedure was used to test for the effects of treatments (fungal isolates or control) with time as a regression factor. Experiments and treatments were treated as random factors. Percentage root necrosis and colonization were arcsine-sqrt-transformed prior to analysis. Nematode counts were calculated per 100 g of root sample and then $\sqrt{x + 0.5}$ -transformed prior to analysis. One-way ANOVA was used to determine differences among experiments. When differences were observed between experiments, data from each experiment was analyzed separately. Within each experiment, a one-way ANOVA was conducted to demonstrate variability among treatments and, if different, means were separated using Tukey's studentized range test (SAS Institute, 1989).

Results

Significant differences ($P < 0.05$) were observed among experiments for all the assessed variables. Consequently, data from each experiment was analyzed separately.

Radopholus similis reproduction

The population density of *R. similis* females significantly differed among the nine experiments ($P < 0.0001$). The interaction between experiments and treatments was, however, not significant ($P = 0.1053$). Within experiments, the population density of female *R. similis* was not significantly different between the endophyte treatments and the control treatment ($P = 0.0985 - 0.9141$) (Table 3). Some endophytic isolates resulted in lower *R. similis* female densities in treated compared to untreated plants. For example, plants treated with the fungal isolate *Eny1.31i* had lower *R. similis* female densities in seven out of eight experiments where this isolate was tested, *V5W2*-treated plants had lower female *R. similis* densities in four out of seven and *Eny7.11o*-treated plants had fewer females in five out of seven experiments. In some experiments, endophyte-treated plants had higher female *R. similis* densities than in the control plants. For example, in experiment 8, plants treated with fungal isolates *III4W1*, *V4W5*, *III3W3* and *Emb2.4o* had higher female *R. similis* densities compared to the control treatment. The coefficient of variation for *R. similis* females in the nine experiments varied from 40.2% to 71.7%.

Endophyte treatment did not significantly affect the densities of *R. similis* males ($P = 0.0893 - 0.7244$) (Table 4), juveniles ($P = 0.0575 - 0.7752$) (Table 5) or the total population density (females + males + juveniles) ($P = 0.0749 - 0.7966$) (Table 6) in all experiments. However, the densities of *R. similis* males, juveniles and the total nematode density differed significantly among experiments ($P < 0.0001$) indicating that the isolates resulted in different nematode densities in each experiment. A significant interaction in the numbers of *R. similis* juveniles ($P = 0.0079$) and the total nematode densities ($P = 0.0140$) between treatments and experiments indicated that the fungal isolates performed differently across experiments. No interaction was observed between the density of *R. similis* males and experiments ($P = 0.4295$). A trend in which endophyte-infected plants had lower numbers of *R. similis* males, juveniles and also total nematode densities was observed in most experiments. For instance, the total nematode

densities in experiments 3, 5 and 7 were consistently lower in most endophyte treatments compared to the controls (Table 7). In some experiments, such as experiment 4, the number of male, juvenile and total nematodes was consistently higher in endophyte-treated than untreated plants. The high coefficients of variation (ranging from 40.6 to 67.2%) show that the variation within an experiment was high and may be the reason for the lack of statistical significance.

The total nematode densities were consistently lower in plants treated with fungal isolates *V5W2*, *Eny1.31i* and *Eny7.11o* in comparison to the controls (Table 7). In all the experiments in which isolate *V5W2* was tested, total *R. similis* population densities were lower, with the reduction ranging from 4% to 38%. Plants treated with isolate *Eny1.31i* had lower *R. similis* population densities ranging from 18% to 59% while isolate *Eny7.11o* resulted in a reduction ranging between 7% and 45% in comparison with the controls. A different trend in which endophyte-treated plants supported more nematodes than the controls was observed in experiments 2 and 4, and in one instance each of experiments 5 and 6. In these experiments, the total *R. similis* population densities in plants treated with isolates *III3W3*, *V4W5*, *III4W1*, *V1W7*, *V2W2* and *Emb2.4o* were higher compared to the control plants (3.5% to 97.2% increase). Particularly, in experiment 4, the numbers of *R. similis* in endophyte-treated plants were higher than in the control plants except for the plants treated with isolates *Eny7.11o* and *V5W2* which had lower nematode densities (Table 7). Despite the observed trend, in all the experiments, the reduction in nematode densities in endophyte-treated plants was not significantly different from the controls ($P < 0.05$).

Radopholus similis damage

Nematode damage to banana roots was not significantly affected by endophyte treatment in any of the experiment ($P = 0.0568 - 0.7011$) other than experiment 3 ($P = 0.0175$) (Table 8). In experiment 3, plants treated with isolates *III4W1* had a significantly higher percentage root necrosis than control plants. A non-significant reduction in nematode damage by most of the fungal isolates was observed in experiments 1 and 6. The high variation in experiments (coefficient of variation 10.7% to 63.7%) may be responsible for the lack of a statistical significance of the observed data.

Plant growth and performance

Plant fresh root weights differed significantly among experiments ($P < 0.0001$), and a significant interaction ($P = 0.0006$) between experiments and treatments indicated that the effects of treatments on plant fresh root weight varied across experiments. Inoculation of plants with fungal isolates resulted in variable effects on plant fresh root weights across experiments. Within each experiment, no significant differences were observed between endophyte treatments and the control treatment, except for experiment 3 ($P = 0.0008$) (Table 9). In this experiment, plants treated with isolate *V5W2* had a significantly higher fresh root weight than the control treatment and that of the treatment with isolate *V2W2*, but it did not differ significantly from the other fungal isolates. Plants treated with isolates *V5W2* further had a higher fresh root weights for 5 out of 7 experiments.

A significant difference for fresh shoot weights was found among experiments ($P < 0.0001$), and the interaction between treatments and experiments was not significant ($P = 0.0503$). Within each experiment, fresh shoot weight data demonstrated a lack of significant difference between the endophyte treatments and the controls, except for experiments 3 ($P = 0.0156$) and 8 ($P = 0.0170$) (Table 10). In these experiments, plants treated with fungal isolates *Eny7.11o* and *Eny1.31i*, respectively, resulted in significantly higher shoot weights compared to control plants. Although differences in fresh shoot weights did not reach statistical significance in most of the experiments, a general trend was observed for plants treated with the different fungal isolates to have higher shoot weights than the control plants. For example, isolates *V5W2* and *Eny7.11o* resulted in higher fresh shoot weights in all the experiments in which these isolates were tested, compared to the control plants.

The dry shoot weights differed significantly between experiments ($P < 0.0001$), with a non-significant interaction between treatments and experiments ($P = 0.4090$). Within each experiment, dry shoot weights did not differ between endophyte treatments and the control treatment ($P = 0.1305 - 0.9420$), except for experiments 3 ($P = 0.0004$) and 8 ($P = 0.0105$). In experiment 3, plants treated with fungal isolates *III4W1* and *Emb2.4o* had significantly higher dry shoot weights, while in experiment 8, plants treated with fungal isolate *Eny1.31i* had a significantly higher dry shoot weight compared to the control plants (Table 11). In most of the experiments apart from experiment 5, although not significant, a trend occurred in which

plants treated with the various fungal isolates had higher dry shoot weights compared to the control was observed (Table 11). Isolates *Eny7.110* and *III3W3* resulted in an increase of dry shoot weight in six of the seven experiments.

Plant height of endophyte-treated and untreated plants (data not shown) differed among repeat experiments ($P < 0.0001$). Within each experiment, however, no differences were observed in plant height between the endophyte treatments and control treatment ($P = 0.1525$). The number of standing leaves, length and width of the youngest leaf were also not influenced by endophyte treatment (data not shown).

The total number of roots per plant in endophyte-treated and untreated plants (data not shown) also differed among repeat experiments ($P < 0.0001$). A significant interaction between experiments and treatments was observed ($P = 0.0070$), indicating that the effect of treatments on the total number of roots per plant varied across experiments. Within each experiment no differences were observed in the total number of roots per plant between the control and endophyte treatments, except for experiments 3 ($P = 0.0044$) and 5 ($P = 0.0186$). In experiment 3, plants treated with isolates *III4W1*, *V5W2* and *V4W5* had significantly more roots than all the other endophyte-treated plants and the control. In experiment 5, control plants had significantly more roots than the endophyte-treated plants, except for plants treated with isolate *Eny1.31i*, which had significantly less roots than control plants.

The number of functional roots per plant differed among experiments ($P < 0.0001$) (Table 12), with a significant interaction between experiments and treatments ($P = 0.0046$). This indicates that the effect of treatments on the number of functional roots differed across experiments. Within each experiment, no differences in the number of functional roots between endophyte treatments and the control treatment were observed, except for experiments 5 ($P = 0.0065$), 6 ($P = 0.0339$) and 9 ($P = 0.0400$). Plants treated with isolates *Eny1.31i* and *Emb2.4o* had significantly fewer roots compared to the controls in experiments 5 and 6, respectively. In experiment 9, plants treated with *Eny1.31i* had more functional roots than the control plants. The percentage of dead roots varied across experiments ($P < 0.0001$) with a non-significant interaction between treatments and experiments ($P = 0.1640$). Within each experiment, differences in the percentage of dead roots between the endophyte treatment and the control treatment were not significant (data not shown).

Endophytic colonization

Percentage colonization of roots treated with the various fungal isolates ranged from 44.9 to 68.8% in experiment 2, 22.6 to 65.3% in experiment 7, and 17.5 to 22.4% in experiment 9 (Table 13). Endophytic *F. oxysporum* was also re-isolated from control plants. Colonization of roots of control plants by *F. oxysporum* was 45.2%, 36.0% and 16.6% in experiments 2, 7 and 9, respectively. Percentage colonization of plant roots of endophyte-treated plants was not statistically different from the control plants in experiments 2 ($P=0.1171$), 7 ($P=0.4467$) and 9 ($P=0.8519$). Other fungi were also frequently isolated from endophyte-treated and control roots. The most commonly isolated fungal genera were *Penicillium* spp. and other sterile fungi (data not shown). The levels of colonization of plants by fungal isolates varied across the experiments. Percentage colonization by *F. oxysporum* was higher in experiment 2 and 7 than in experiment 9. For example, percent colonization by isolate *V5W2* was 58.4%, 34.6% and 22.4% in experiments 2, 7 and 9, respectively.

Discussion

Artificial inoculation of TC plants with fungal endophytes may offer a cost effective nematode management strategy due to the low levels of fungal inoculum required through targeted application on the plants roots (Sikora *et al.*, 2000a). In the current study, however, treatment of TC banana plants with non-pathogenic *F. oxysporum* endophyte isolates did not significantly reduce *R. similis* densities, nematode damage to banana roots, or enhance plant growth in the screen house. The high variation observed in each experiment were mostly responsible for the lack of significant differences, as a general reduction in nematode densities and root damage, and enhancement in plant growth properties, was observed for endophyte-treated plants compared to control treatments. In a separate investigation, Pocasangre (2000) demonstrated that inoculation of endophytes into TC Cavendish banana plants gave protection against *R. similis*.

While the use of TC plants provided relatively uniform plants, the results obtained depicted large unexplained variations in both nematode densities, root damage and plant growth data. The high coefficient of variation was observed both within and among experiments. Under similar screen house conditions, Niere (2001) also found no significant differences between endophyte-treated and control plants, despite endophyte-treated plants having 40% to 50% less nematodes compared to control plants. The substantial variation among repeated experiments could be due to differences in environmental conditions in the screen house, the vigor of the nematode inoculum, small sample size, and root colonization by endophytes. The nine experiments in the current study were conducted over a period of 9 months, and the variation in weather conditions may have influenced the outcome of each experiment. In this time, the air temperature in the screen house where the experiments were conducted varied between 19.1 °C to 32.8 °C, while the soil temperature in the plastic bags varied between 20.4 °C to 26.3 °C. Since the soil temperature was inside the range for *R. similis* reproduction (Sarah *et al.*, 1996), the air temperature in the screen house may have resulted in the observed variation. Viaene *et al.* (2003) also observed variation in root weights and *R. similis* densities in banana genotypes in a series of experiments conducted under similar glasshouse conditions. A lack in endophytic colonization of banana roots and differences in nematode vigor may have also accounted for the observed lack in significant differences, as successful colonization by the fungal endophytes was not demonstrated for all experiments, and virulence in

nematodes under the different environmental conditions was not investigated. Similar variation in the effects of endophytes on nematode population densities between experiments, however, has been reported several times before (Cook *et al.*, 1991; Niere, 2001; Sikora *et al.*, 2003).

In the three experiments where fungal re-isolation was conducted, it was demonstrated that plants were colonized by endophytic *F. oxysporum* although colonization of endophyte-treated plants was not different from that of control plants. Whether the re-isolated fungi were actually the ones originally inoculated has not been determined. Re-isolation of endophytic *F. oxysporum* from uninoculated control plants was also demonstrated, with no differences in colonization rates between endophyte-treated and control plants. Possible contamination of control plants by endophytic *F. oxysporum* may have come from the soil, irrigation water or from the screen house environment. The extent to which these contaminants may have influenced the results is however unknown and may be responsible for the lack of significant differences observed between the endophyte treatments and control treatment. The problem of contaminants may be overcome by conducting future experiments in controlled environments like growth cabinets or using sterile irrigation water. The ability to establish and monitor colonization of plants by the introduced fungal endophytes is an important aspect of biological control (Gullino *et al.*, 1995; Kerry, 2000). Although it was possible to recover fungal isolates to varying degrees, it is not possible to confirm with certainty that the re-isolated fungi were the original isolates that were inoculated, due to lack of adequate marking techniques. Since control plants were also colonized, a system should be put in place to identify the reisolated fungi and compare them to the original isolates. Biochemical markers and DNA fingerprinting can be used to trace individual strains after release into the soil (Gullino *et al.*, 1995) and may also be useful to trace endophytic *F. oxysporum* strains. Use of mutants developed on selective medium may also be used for endophyte tracking purposes. For example, benomyl-resistant mutants obtained by UV treatment (Yamaguchi *et al.*, 1998) may be used to track inoculated isolates over time. The fungal isolates can also be genetically transformed with fluorescent proteins (Bao *et al.*, 2000). The feasibility however, for using genetically transformed isolates under Ugandan conditions may be hindered by biosafety rules surrounding genetically modified organisms. Thus, the use of fungicide-resistant mutants offers a more feasible option in Uganda.

Endophyte treatment of banana plants seems to affect all stages *R. similis* (females, males and juveniles). The reduction in the female and male *R. similis* densities may be due to endophyte effects on the post-embryonic development of the juvenile stages into adults. Probably, the endophytes affected the feeding activity of the nematodes, thereby reducing the numbers of juveniles that developed to maturity. Niere (2001) also showed that endophyte-treated plants had lower densities of *R. similis* females that subsequently resulted in lower total *R. similis* densities. The lower juvenile densities observed in the current study may be due to an inhibition of egg hatching inside the plant. Although this may be difficult to demonstrate inside the plant, inhibition of the hatching of *R. similis* eggs by culture filtrates of these isolates was demonstrated earlier (Chapter 2).

Plant growth stimulation appeared to be the parameter least affected following inoculation of TC banana plants with non-pathogenic *F. oxysporum* endophytes. According to Fallas *et al.* (1995), shoot and root weight reductions are useful indicators for nematode pathogenicity and may be used to assess growth promotional effects of fungal (endophyte) inoculation. In the current study, a higher fresh root and shoot weight was generally demonstrated with endophyte-treated plants, but plant height, the number of standing leaves and the length and width of the youngest leaf were not influenced by endophyte treatment. Plant growth promotion by some endophytic *Fusarium* isolates that manifested in bigger root and shoot weights of banana plants were previously reported by Pocasangre (2000) and Niere (2001). Niere (2001) also reported that the height of banana plants of different cultivars was not influenced by endophyte treatment.

Damage due to nematode infection was assessed as a percentage necrotic root tissue and the number of dead roots (Gold *et al.*, 1994; Speijer and Gold, 1996). Root necrosis was not significantly affected by endophyte treatment in any of the experiments although a general trend was observed for roots of endophyte-treated plants to have less nematode damage than those of control plants. Assessment of nematode damage based on visual ratings is subjective however, and varies naturally with the individuals scoring for the damage. For consistency of nematode damage data, one individual scored for necrosis in all the experiments. There were large variations in nematode damage between replications in a given treatment, which may be responsible for the observed lack of differences. Additionally, variation within a replication was observed where from the same plant, some roots had no nematode damage while others

had high levels of nematode damage. Niere (2001) also reported a high variation in nematode damage, which resulted in a lack of statistical significance.

Inoculation of TC banana plants with some endophytic isolates resulted in substantially lower *R. similis* population densities, despite these not being statistically significant. From these results, three isolates, *V5W2*, *Eny1.31i* and *Eny7.11o* offer potential for biological control of *R. similis* in TC banana plants. In previous experiments with endophytes in banana, Niere (2001) reported similar trends for *R. similis* densities in plants of the banana cv. Enyeru inoculated with the fungal isolates *V1W7*, *Eny1.31i* and *Eny7.11o*. These three isolates will, therefore, be used for studies on detailed plant-endophyte interactions and mechanism of endophyte-control of nematodes.

References

- Bao, J.R., Valema, J., Dobinson, K., and Lazarovits, G. (2000). Using GUS expression in a nonpathogenic *Fusarium oxysporum* strain to measure fungal biomass. *Canadian Journal of Plant Pathology* 22: 70-78.
- Blomme, G., De Buele, H., Swennen, R.L., Tenkouano, A. and De Waele, D. (2004). Effect of nematodes on root and shoot growth of in vitro propagated and sword sucker-derived plants of six *Musa* spp. genotypes. *Nematology* 6: 593-604.
- Cook, R., Lewis, G.C. and Mizen, K.A. (1991). Effects of plant-parasitic nematodes infection of perennial ryegrass, *Lolium perenne*, by the endophytic fungus, *Acremonium lolii*. *Crop Protection* 10: 403-407.
- De Waele, D., Boonen, E. and Swennen, R.L. (1997). Nematode susceptibility and sensitivity of *in vitro* propagated Valery banana under field conditions in conditions in Costa Rica. *Acta Horticulturae* 490: 361-367.
- Fallas, G.A., Sarah, J.L. and Fargette, M. (1995). Reproductive fitness and pathogenicity of eight *Radopholus similis* isolates on banana plants (*Musa* AAA cv. Poyo). *Nematopica* 25: 135-141.
- Gold, C.S., Speijer, P.R., Karamura, E.B., Tushemereirwe, W.K. and Kashiija, I.N. (1994). Survey methodologies for banana weevil and nematode damage assessment in Uganda. *African Crop Science Journal* 2: 309-321.
- Gullino, L.M, Migheli, Q. and Mezzalama, M. (1995). Risk analysis in the release of biological control agents. Antagonistic *Fusarium oxysporum* as a case study. *Plant Disease* 79: 1193-1199.
- Hooper, D.J., Hallmann, J. and Subbotin, S.A. (2005). Methods for Extraction, Processing and Detection of Plant and Soil Nematodes In: Luc, M., Sikora, R.A. and Bridge, J. (Eds). *Plant parasitic nematodes in subtropical and tropical agriculture*. CAB International, Wallingford, UK. pp. 53-86.
- Karamura, D.A., Karamura, E.B. and Gold, C.S. (1993). Cultivar distribution in major growing regions in Uganda. *Musafrika* 9: 3-5.
- Kerry, B.R. (2000). Rhizosphere interactions and the exploitation of microbial agents for the biological control of plant parasitic nematodes. *Annual Review of Phytopathology* 38: 423-441.

- Mateille, T., Quénéhervé, P. and Hugon, R. (1994). The development of plant-parasitic nematode infestations on micro-propagated banana plants following field control measures in Côte d'Ivoire. *Annals of Applied Biology* 125: 147-159.
- Murashige, T. and Skoog, F. (1962). A revised medium for rapid growth and bioassays with tobacco tissue cultures. *Plant Physiology* 15: 473-497.
- Nelson, P.E., Toussoun, T.A. and Marasas, W.F.O. (1983). *Fusarium* species. An illustrated manual for identification. The Pennsylvania State University Press, University Park. Pennsylvania. USA. p193.
- Niere, B.I. (2001). Significance of non-pathogenic isolates of *Fusarium oxysporum* Schlecht.: Fries for the biological control of the burrowing nematode *Radopholus similis* (Cobb) Thorne on tissue cultured banana. PhD Thesis, University of Bonn. Bonn. Germany. p118.
- O'Bannon, J.H. (1977). Worldwide distribution of *Radopholus similis* and its importance in crop production. *Journal of Nematology* 9: 16-25.
- Pocasangre, L. (2000). Biological enhancement of tissue culture plantlets with endophytic fungi for the control of the burrowing nematodes *Radopholus similis* and the Panama disease (*Fusarium oxysporum* f. sp. *cubense*). PhD Thesis, University of Bonn. Bonn. Germany. p94.
- Robinson, J.C. (1996). Bananas and plantains. CAB International, Wallingford, UK. p238.
- Sarah, J.L. (1989). Banana nematodes and their control in Africa. *Nematropica* 19: 199-216.
- Sarah, J.L., Pinochet, J. and Stanton, J. (1996). The burrowing nematode of bananas, *Radopholus similis* Cobb. *Musa* Pest fact Sheet No. 1. INIBAP. Montpellier, France.
- SAS Institute (1989). SAS/STAT User's Guide, Version 6 Fourth Edition Volume 1. SAS Institute, Cary, USA. p943.
- Schuster, R. P., Sikora, R. A. and Amin, N. (1995). Potential of endophytic fungi for the biological control of plant parasitic nematodes. *Mededelingen van de Faculteit Landbouwwetenschappen Rijksuniversiteit Gent* 60: 1047-1052.
- Sikora, R. A. and Schuster, R.P. (1999). Novel approaches to nematode IPM. In: Frison, E.A. Gold, C.S. Karamura, E.B. and Sikora, R.A. (Eds). Mobilising IPM for sustainable banana production in Africa. INIBAP, Montpellier, France. pp.127-136.
- Sikora, R.A. Oka, Y., Sharon, E., Kok Hans, C.J. and Keren-Zur, M. (2000a). Achievements and research requirements for the integration of biocontrol into farming systems. *Nematology* 2: 737-738.

- Sikora, R.A., Schuster, R.P. and Griesbach, M. (2000b). Improved plant health through biological enhancement of banana planting material with mutualistic endophytes. *Acta Horticulturae* 540: 409-413.
- Sikora, R.A., Niere, B. and Kimenju, J. (2003). Endophytic microbial biodiversity and plant nematode management in African agriculture. In: Neuenschwander, P., Borgemeister, C. and Langewald, J. (Eds). *Biological control in IPM systems in Africa*. CAB International, Wallingford, UK. pp.179-192.
- Speijer, P.R., Gold C.S., Kajumba, C. and Karamura E.B. (1995). Nematode infestation of 'clean' banana planting materials in farmer's fields in Uganda. *Nematologica* 41: 344.
- Speijer, P.R. and Gold, C.S. (1996). *Musa* root health assessment: a technique for the evaluation of *Musa* germplasm for nematode resistance. In: Frison, E.A., Horry, J.P. and De Waele, D. (Eds). *Proceedings of the workshop on new frontiers in resistance breeding for nematode, Fusarium and Sigatoka*. Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia, 2-5 October 1995. INIBAP, Montpellier, France, pp.62-78.
- Speijer, P.R. and De Waele, D. (1997). Screening of *Musa* germplasm for resistance and tolerance to nematodes. INIBAP Technical Guidelines 1. Montpellier, France. p47.
- Speijer, P.R. and Ssango, F. (1999). Evaluation of *Musa* host plant response using nematodes densities and damage indices. *Nematropica* 239: 185-192.
- Speijer, P.R., Kajumba, C. and Tushemereirwe, W. (1999). Dissemination and adaptation of a banana clean planting material technology in Uganda. *InfoMusa* 8: 11-13.
- Speijer, P.R., Nampala, P.M., Elsen, A., Ekwamu, A. and De Waele, D. (2001). Reinfestation by nematodes and performance of hot-water-treated East African highland cooking bananas as perceived by farmers in Ikulwe, Iganga District, Uganda. *African Plant Protection* 7: 85-89.
- Stanton, J.M. (1999). Assessment of resistance and tolerance of *in-vitro* propagated banana plants to burrowing nematode, *Radopholus similis*. *Australian Journal of Experimental Agriculture* 39: 891-895.
- Viaene, N., Duran, L.F., Rivera, M.J., Duenas, J., Rowe, P. and De Waele, D. (2003). Responses of banana and plantain cultivars, lines and hybrids to the burrowing nematode *Radopholus similis*. *Nematology* 5: 85-98.
- Vuylsteke, D. (1998). Shoot-tip Culture for the Propagation, Conservation, and Distribution of *Musa* Germplasm. International Institute of Tropical Agriculture. Ibadan. Nigeria. p73.

Yamaguchi, K.I., Fukui, K. and Takahashi, M. (1998). Fungicide sensitivity of non-pathogenic *Fusarium* isolate MT0062, a potential biocontrol agent, and induction of benomyl-resistant mutants. *Journal of Pesticide Science* 23: 407-409.

Figure 1: Example of the root necrosis assessment procedure for the estimation of percentage necrotic root tissue of longitudinal sections of five 10-cm-long root pieces (Source: Speijer and Gold, 1996).

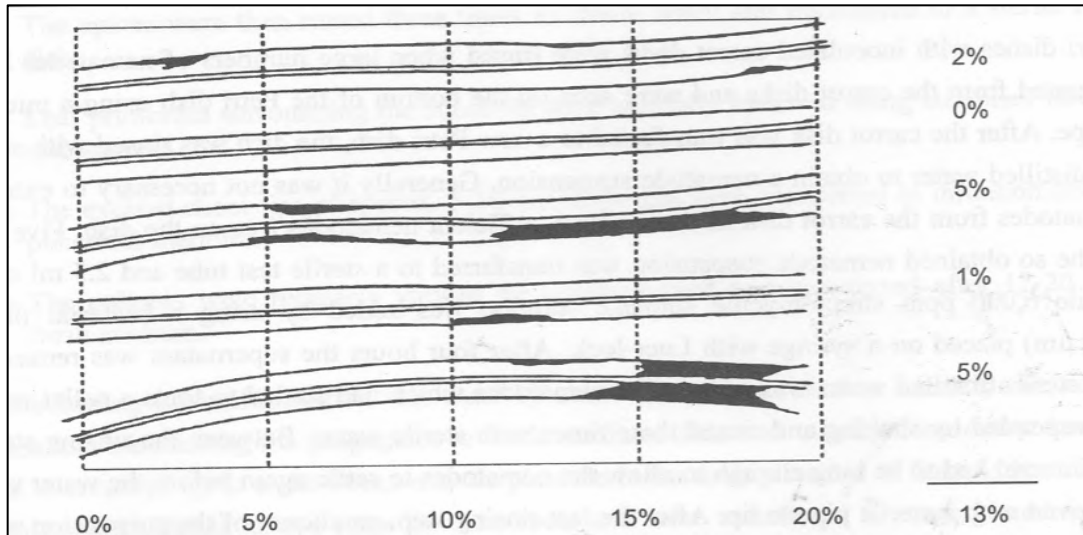


Table 1: Composition of Murashige and Skoog (1962) mineral salt (MS) mixture, for growing tissue culture banana plants *in vitro*.

Major salts	Quantity (mg / l)	Minor salts*	Quantity (mg / l)
KNO ₃	1900	MnSO ₄ .4H ₂ O	22.3
NH ₄ NO ₃	1650	H ₃ BO ₃	6.2
CaCl ₂ .2H ₂ O	440	ZnSO ₄ .4H ₂ O	8.6
MgSO ₄ .7H ₂ O	370	KCl	0.83
KH ₂ PO ₄	170	Na ₂ MoO ₄ .2H ₂ O	0.25
FeSO ₄ .7H ₂ O	27.8	CuSO ₄ .5H ₂ O	0.025
Na ₂ EDTA.2H ₂ O	37.3	CoCl ₂ .6H ₂ O	0.025

*Modified by Vuylsteke (1998) by replacing MnSO₄.4H₂O (22.3 mg/l) with MnSO₄.4H₂O (16.9 mg/l).

Table 2: The identity and origin of endophytic non-pathogenic *Fusarium oxysporum* isolates used in *in vivo* screening experiments against *Radopholus similis* in tissue culture banana plants

Fungal isolate	Cultivar	Plant part	Number of times tests repeated*	<i>In vivo</i> activity**
<i>Eny1.31i</i>	Enyeru (AAA-EA)	Rhizome	8	Reduced
<i>Eny7.11o</i>	Enyeru (AAA-EA)	Rhizome	7	Reduced
<i>III3W3</i>	Unknown AAA-EA	Root	7	nt
<i>III4W1</i>	Unknown AAA-EA	Root	8	Reduced
<i>V5W2</i>	Unknown AAA-EA	Root	7	Reduced
<i>V4W5</i>	Unknown AAA-EA	Root	7	Reduced
<i>V2W2</i>	Unknown AAA-EA	Root	7	Reduced
<i>V1W7</i>	Unknown AAA-EA	Root	6	Reduced
<i>Emb2.4o</i>	Embiire (AAA-EA)	Rhizome	5	nt

* The number of times each fungal isolate was tested out of the total of nine experiments conducted during this study

**Effect of fungal isolate on *R. similis* population density in TC banana plants of different cultivars as reported by Niere (2001). Reduction in *R. similis* densities was not significantly different from control plants. nt= not tested.

Table 3: The effect of endophytic *Fusarium oxysporum* isolates on the density of *Radopholus similis* females in roots of 16-week-old tissue culture banana plants of the cv. Enyeru (*Musa* spp. AAA-EA), 8 weeks after inoculation with 500 nematodes.

Treatment	*Numbers of <i>Radopholus similis</i> females (x 100) / 100g roots								
	Experiment No.								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Control	3.6 ± 0.6	6.2 ±	22.4 ± 3.8	9.4 ± 2.1	30.4 ± 8.6	31.5 ± 6.8	57.3 ± 10.7	62.2 ± 13.7	133.9 ± 17.9
<i>Eny.131i</i>	2.6 ± 0.7	5.8 ±	34.2 ± 2.2	7.6 ± 2.8	17.4 ± 4.9	nt	34.4 ± 6.7	56.6 ± 15.1	83.7 ± 9.5
<i>V5W2</i>	2.6 ± 0.4	7.6 ±	23.0 ± 7.9	9.9 ± 4.2	nt	19.4 ± 4.3	39.0 ± 5.1	nt	127.0 ± 20.7
<i>Eny7.11o</i>	4.1 ± 0.9	6.5 ±	18.2 ± 6.2	8.0 ± 1.4	19.8 ± 8.9	nt	35.0 ± 4.5	59.9 ± 8.2	nt
<i>III4W1</i>	3.4 ± 0.8	12.3 ±	37.3 ± 9.4	24.6 ± 7.3	30.4 ± 6.9	nt	50.7 ± 15.9	73.6 ± 18.2	114.7 ± 18.5
<i>V4W5</i>	4.2 ± 0.7	8.5 ±	23.0 ± 10.0	11.5 ± 3.2	33.6 ± 10.0	nt	44.2 ± 6.8	73.0 ± 25.8	nt
<i>III3W3</i>	3.9 ± 0.7	18.4 ±	21.6 ± 2.9	11.2 ± 2.6	14.3 ± 2.5	nt	52.3 ± 9.2	174.7 ± 65.2	nt
<i>V1W7</i>	nt	9.2 ±	26.0 ± 10.5	9.5 ± 2.4	nt	31.4 ± 3.8	47.2 ± 10.3	nt	nt
<i>V2W2</i>	nt	13.1 ±	31.8 ± 14.9	15.1 ± 5.8	20.0 ± 5.8	-	50.8 ± 10.5	68.9 ± 19.9	nt
<i>Emb2.4o</i>	nt	nt	23.3 ± 9.7	15.6 ± 5.7	-	47.5 ± 12.1	53.3 ± 13.7	71.9 ± 24.5	nt
<i>P-value</i>	0.3096	0.6183	0.9141	0.4305	0.2830	0.0985	0.8050	0.418	0.2432
CV	52.9	65.2	71.7	55.9	62.8	46.7	40.2	51.6	37.7

* Mean ± S.E

Means and standard errors were calculated from untransformed data. Statistical analysis was performed on sqrt(x + 0.5) transformed data. Each column represents one experiment; nt=not tested.

Table 4: The effect of endophytic *Fusarium oxysporum* isolates on the density of *Radopholus similis* males in roots of 16-week-old tissue culture banana plants of the cv. Enyeru (*Musa* spp. AAA-EA), 8 weeks after inoculation with 500 nematodes.

*Numbers of <i>Radopholus similis</i> males (x100) / 100 g root									
Treatment	Experiment No.								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Control	3.0 ± 0.7	5.1 ± 1.2	17.8 ± 3.2	5.3 ± 1.0	17.8 ± 2.9	38.2 ± 8.5	71.9 ± 17.3	65.2 ± 11.3	76.6 ± 98.5
<i>Eny.131i</i>	3.3 ± 0.8	4.3 ± 1.1	11.7 ± 2.8	7.2 ± 2.2	19.9 ± 5.2	nt	35.0 ± 9.3	48.9 ± 11.0	50.9 ± 63.1
<i>V5W2</i>	1.8 ± 0.5	3.4 ± 0.8	15.9 ± 4.7	5.2 ± 1.6	nt	21.6 ± 5.4	45.5 ± 5.7	nt	73.8 ± 124.8
<i>Eny7.11o</i>	2.9 ± 0.6	3.8 ± 0.7	10.1 ± 1.5	7.5 ± 2.4	9.6 ± 2.5	nt	41.3 ± 7.1	48.8 ± 10.1	nt
<i>III4W1</i>	3.3 ± 1.0	8.6 ± 2.2	16.2 ± 4.3	12.5 ± 3.6	19.9 ± 3.9	nt	54.5 ± 15.6	68.6 ± 21.5	77.3 ± 138.0
<i>V4W5</i>	3.0 ± 0.4	5.0 ± 0.9	8.8 ± 2.2	5.3 ± 1.8	24.8 ± 7.9	nt	47.5 ± 11.1	64.5 ± 19.8	nt
<i>III3W3</i>	2.6 ± 0.6	6.2 ± 1.8	14.0 ± 3.1	9.4 ± 1.9	13.0 ± 2.4	nt	53.9 ± 9.5	134.8 ± 47.2	nt
<i>V1W7</i>	nt	4.8 ± 1.1	12.2 ± 4.3	8.3 ± 3.4	nt	35.2 ± 3.8	41.7 ± 5.5	nt	nt
<i>V2W2</i>	nt	4.6 ± 1.1	10.8 ± 3.3	10.6 ± 3.2	13.9 ± 3.8	nt	44.7 ± 11.1	66.1 ± 23.9	nt
<i>Emb2.4o</i>	nt	nt	9.5 ± 2.9	12.8 ± 4.8	nt	44.2 ± 9.1	60.3 ± 18.3	77.8 ± 27.0	nt
<i>P</i> -value	0.5737	0.6210	0.1868	0.7244	0.1351	0.0893	0.7201	0.6934	0.3474
CV	67.2	52.6	56.9	61.2	56.4	43.2	46.0	57.3	40.6

* Mean ± S.E

Means and standard errors were calculated from untransformed data. Statistical analysis was performed on sqrt (x +0.5) transformed data. Each column represents one experiment; nt= not tested.

Table 5: The effect of endophytic *Fusarium oxysporum* isolates on the density of *Radopholus similis* juveniles in roots of 16-week-old tissue culture banana plants of the cv. Enyeru (*Musa* spp. AAA-EA), 8 weeks after inoculation with 500 nematodes.

Treatment	*Numbers of <i>Radopholus similis</i> juveniles (x100)/ 100 g root								
	Experiment No.								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Control	47.1 ± 8.3	118.0 ± 23.5	277.4 ± 49.6	62.8 ± 13.1	131.3 ± 23.6	187.4 ± 30.1	294.9 ± 48.6	541.3 ± 76.9	238.9 ± 36.4
<i>Eny.131i</i>	29.3 ± 6.6	72.4 ± 17.6	156.6 ± 49.0	81.8 ± 29.0	111.5 ± 30.6	nt	192.6 ± 53.8	427.1 ± 91.0	135.6 ± 14.8
<i>V5W2</i>	30.7 ± 6.0	111.9 ± 28.5	176.4 ± 36.5	40.9 ± 8.8	nt	118.0 ± 21.9	208.4 ± 21.3	nt	199.1 ± 23.3
<i>Eny7.11o</i>	39.6 ± 6.8	77.1 ± 20.2	143.3 ± 28.4	58.0 ± 10.0	96.9 ± 22.7	nt	241.1 ± 36.2	511.0 ± 80.1	nt
<i>III4W1</i>	38.7 ± 8.1	135.2 ± 35.1	155.8 ± 27.7	100.0 ± 25.9	126.6 ± 17.2	nt	227.9 ± 57.9	519.3 ± 124.6	229.3 ± 36.2
<i>V4W5</i>	36.9 ± 5.5	120.2 ± 30.5	130.5 ± 34.4	83.2 ± 24.7	130.8 ± 21.5	nt	232.2 ± 36.1	452.6 ± 119.2	nt
<i>III3W3</i>	44.8 ± 1.4	123.1 ± 21.0	148.0 ± 30.3	102.6 ± 20.3	105.7 ± 15.7	nt	209.3 ± 32.6	1009.2 ± 339.6	nt
<i>VIW7</i>	nt	110.4 ± 29.1	159.7 ± 35.5	122.3 ± 34.1	nt	172.3 ± 17.2	236.9 ± 26.0	nt	nt
<i>V2W2</i>	nt	94.0 ± 19.8	121.9 ± 21.0	95.3 ± 22.3	105.1 ± 19.9	-	234.1 ± 47.2	491.7 ± 136.8	nt
<i>Emb2.4o</i>	nt	nt	135.1 ± 30.7	116.3 ± 42.2	nt	198.8 ± 37.4	284.1 ± 64.0	477.8 ± 91.8	nt
<i>P</i> value	0.5063	0.7660	0.4144	0.3427	0.7383	0.1757	0.7752	0.5403	0.0575
CV	44.6	45.9	48.6	44.5	41.3	35.2	36.9	43.3	35.3

* Mean ± S.E

Means and standard errors were calculated from untransformed data. Statistical analysis was performed on sqrt (x +0.5) transformed data. Each column represents one experiment. nt, not tested

Table 6: The effect of endophytic *Fusarium oxysporum* isolates on the total *Radopholus similis* population density (males + female + juveniles) in roots of 16-week-old tissue culture banana plants of the cv. Enyeru (*Musa* spp. AAA-EA), 8 weeks after inoculation with 500 nematodes.

Treatment	*Total <i>Radopholus similis</i> population density (x100) /100 g root								
	Experiment No.								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Control	53.7 ± 8.9	129.3 ± 5.3	317.8 ± 52.8	76.7 ± 14.7	179.6 ± 32.7	257.1 ± 43.8	424.2 ± 72.8	668.8 ± 98.0	449.5 ± 51.6
<i>Eny.131i</i>	35.4 ± 7.5	82.2 ± 18.6	202.5 ± 70.4	96.7 ± 33.8	153.9 ± 42.0	nt	262.1 ± 68.4	532.7 ± 115.2	270.3 ± 27.1
<i>V5W2</i>	35.2 ± 6.5	123.0 ± 29.6	215.4 ± 44.3	56.0 ± 14.3	nt	157.1 ± 29.3	293.1 ± 30.1	nt	400.0 ± 52.6
<i>Eny7.11o</i>	46.7 ± 7.7	87.5 ± 20.7	172.7 ± 30.9	73.6 ± 12.4	126.4 ± 32.3	nt	317.5 ± 45.9	619.8 ± 92.9	nt
<i>III4W1</i>	45.4 ± 9.1	156.1 ± 39.7	209.4 ± 35.9	137.2 ± 35.2	177.0 ± 26.7	nt	333.2 ± 87.7	661.6 ± 161.3	421.3 ± 62.8
<i>V4W5</i>	44.2 ± 6.3	133.8 ± 31.2	136.4 ± 42.6	100.1 ± 29.3	189.2 ± 36.6	nt	324.0 ± 47.0	590.3 ± 162.5	nt
<i>III3W3</i>	51.5 ± 15.1	147.8 ± 30.0	183.6 ± 38.2	131.0 ± 23.4	133.1 ± 19.8	nt	315.6 ± 46.9	1318.8 ± 450.1	nt
<i>V1W7</i>	nt	124.5 ± 30.3	198.1 ± 46.6	140.1 ± 38.9	nt	239.1 ± 21.5	325.8 ± 36.2	nt	nt
<i>V2W2</i>	nt	111.8 ± 22.7	164.7 ± 36.6	121.1 ± 30.3	139.2 ± 27.8	-	329.7 ± 65.6	626.8 ± 178.2	nt
<i>Emb2.4o</i>	nt	nt	167.9 ± 40.2	144.7 ± 52.3	nt	290.5 ± 56.1	397.8 ± 92.5	627.7 ± 139.5	nt
<i>P-value</i>	0.5151	0.7668	0.3218	0.4349	0.5400	0.1135	0.7966	0.5425	0.0749
<i>CV</i>	41.8	44.5	48.5	44.6	42.8	35.8	36.6	44.1	33.1

* Mean ± S.E

Means and standard errors were calculated from untransformed data. Statistical analysis was performed on sqrt (x +0.5) transformed data. Each column represents one experiment; nt= not tested.

Table 7: Percentage change in total *Radopholus similis* populations in roots of 16-week-old tissue culture banana plants of the cv. Enyuru (*Musa* spp. AAA-EA) inoculated with various endophytic *Fusarium oxysporum* isolates in comparison with control plants, 8 weeks after inoculation with 500 nematodes.

Treatment	Percentage change in total* <i>Radopholus similis</i> populations/ 100 g root								
	Experiment No.								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
<i>Eny.131i</i>	-34.14	-26.87	-36.23	26.07	-18.71	nt	-59.34	-20.35	-39.87
<i>V5W2</i>	-11.00	-4.88	-32.18	-26.94	nt	-38.91	-30.91	nt	-11.00
<i>Eny7.11o</i>	-10.93	-32.29	-45.62	-4.03	-29.61	nt	-25.16	-7.33	nt
<i>III3W3</i>	-4.23	14.30	-42.18	56.95	-25.89	nt	-25.60	97.17	-6.26
<i>V4W5</i>	-17.79	3.52	-48.87	30.46	5.34	nt	-23.61	-11.75	nt
<i>III4W1</i>	-15.50	20.77	-34.07	78.85	-1.47	nt	-21.44	-1.08	nt
<i>V1W7</i>	nt	-3.74	-37.63	82.59	nt	-7.03	-23.18	nt	nt
<i>V2W2</i>	nt	-13.54	-48.14	57.81	-22.48	nt	-22.28	-6.29	nt
<i>Emb2.4o</i>	nt		-47.13	88.58	nt	13.00	-6.23	-6.16	nt

*Total of females + males + juveniles. Negative change indicates a reduction in total *R. similis* populations while a positive change indicates an increase in *R. similis* population compared to the control treatment.

Table 8: The effect of endophytic *Fusarium oxysporum* isolates on the damage caused by *Radopholus similis* in banana root tissue (mean \pm S.E.) in 16-week-old tissue culture banana plants of the cv. Enyeru (*Musa* spp. AAA-EA), 8-weeks after inoculation with 500 nematodes.

Treatment	Percentage root necrosis								
	Experiment No.								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Control	14.9 \pm 3.5	6.1 \pm 1.4	15.8 \pm 1.0 ^b	11.5 \pm 2.0	22.3 \pm 1.6 ^{ab}	32.2 \pm 2.9	21.3 \pm 2.0	38.1 \pm 5.3	32.5 \pm 3.4
<i>Eny.131i</i>	6.7 \pm 2.3	10.5 \pm 1.7	16.6 \pm 0.7 ^{ab}	16.8 \pm 9.2	19.2 \pm 3.7 ^{ab}	nt	24.4 \pm 2.2	31.4 \pm 3.9	37.2 \pm 2.3
<i>V5W2</i>	8.5 \pm 2.6	7.0 \pm 2.2	19.7 \pm 0.6 ^{ab}	8.8 \pm 1.8	nt	25.2 \pm 3.0	22.1 \pm 2.5	nt	35.5 \pm 3.0
<i>III4W1</i>	9.2 \pm 3.7	6.6 \pm 1.7	20.1 \pm 0.7 ^a	13.3 \pm 2.3	24.3 \pm 2.5 ^{ab}	nt	23.2 \pm 3.0	27.5 \pm 5.9	36.2 \pm 2.4
<i>V4W5</i>	11.9 \pm 3.5	8.3 \pm 1.7	17.4 \pm 1.3 ^{ab}	11.4 \pm 2.3	27.1 \pm 2.6 ^a	nt	20.9 \pm 2.8	36.1 \pm 5.2	nt
<i>Eny7.11o</i>	9.7 \pm 3.4	12.7 \pm 2.4	17.3 \pm 0.8 ^{ab}	17.8 \pm 3.9	16.0 \pm 2.0 ^b	nt	28.7 \pm 3.3	35.4 \pm 3.2	nt
<i>III3W3</i>	14.9 \pm 2.6	4.9 \pm 1.0	17.1 \pm 0.7 ^{ab}	11.9 \pm 9.8	16.1 \pm 2.2 ^b	nt	28.3 \pm 3.1	40.4 \pm 6.6	nt
<i>VIW7</i>	nt	12.7 \pm 2.9	18.5 \pm 1.0 ^{ab}	11.6 \pm 2.2	nt	23.0 \pm 3.3	26.4 \pm 1.7	nt	nt
<i>V2W2</i>	nt	6.3 \pm 1.4	16.5 \pm 0.7 ^{ab}	12.1 \pm 2.2	18.3 \pm 2.2 ^{ab}	nt	19.7 \pm 4.0	31.4 \pm 3.9	nt
<i>Emb2.4o</i>	nt	nt	16.7 \pm 0.8 ^{ab}	8.8 \pm 1.4	nt	21.6 \pm 2.3	26.0 \pm 2.6	nt	nt
<i>P</i> -value	0.2667	0.0568	0.0175	0.7011	0.0052	0.1049	0.1463	0.5295	0.4482
CV	63.7	40.2	10.7	37.0	25.0	26.1	24.2	26.6	22.1

Means and standard errors were calculated from untransformed data. Statistical analysis was performed on sqrt (x +0.5) transformed data. Each column represents one experiment; nt= not tested. In columns, means followed by the same small letter (superscript) are not statistically different at P=0.05 according to Tukey's studentized range test.

Table 9: The effect of endophytic *Fusarium oxysporum* isolates on fresh root weight of 16-week-old tissue culture banana plants of the cv. Enyeru (*Musa* spp. AAA-EA), 8-weeks after inoculation with 500 nematodes.

Treatment	*Fresh root weight (g)								
	Experiment No.								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Control	56.4 ± 3.6	45.2 ± 3.9	29.7 ± 3.2 ^{bc}	20.1 ± 3.4	31.8 ± 2.8	27.7 ± 2.1	28.0 ± 3.3	11.9 ± 2.9	19.4 ± 1.8
<i>Eny.131i</i>	61.3 ± 2.8	42.8 ± 2.8	31.7 ± 3.2 ^{abc}	14.8 ± 2.7	24.6 ± 4.5	nt	25.7 ± 2.2	13.9 ± 2.0	20.6 ± 1.2
<i>V5W2</i>	56.4 ± 3.6	47.9 ± 4.4	47.9 ± 3.0 ^a	24.3 ± 4.0	nt	25.3 ± 2.7	29.5 ± 1.8	nt	20.3 ± 1.4
<i>III4W1</i>	56.5 ± 2.3	51.3 ± 6.3	46.4 ± 3.4 ^{ab}	27.6 ± 3.1	30.3 ± 2.1	nt	24.9 ± 2.5	10.5 ± 2.5	21.0 ± 1.4
<i>Eny7.11o</i>	61.2 ± 4.1	40.8 ± 3.0	40.3 ± 4.6 ^{abc}	24.5 ± 4.5	28.0 ± 2.4	nt	31.8 ± 2.8	15.5 ± 2.5	nt
<i>V4W5</i>	57.7 ± 3.1	55.5 ± 5.6	36.0 ± 3.8 ^{abc}	14.6 ± 2.3	26.6 ± 2.7	nt	27.2 ± 2.1	11.5 ± 2.4	nt
<i>III3W3</i>	53.8 ± 3.3	50.1 ± 3.1	36.6 ± 3.1 ^{abc}	19.1 ± 3.2	24.9 ± 2.2	nt	23.7 ± 2.2	7.6 ± 1.8	nt
<i>VIW7</i>	nt	34.8 ± 4.7	43.3 ± 3.9 ^{abc}	15.1 ± 5.6	nt	25.2 ± 2.5	28.3 ± 2.5	nt	nt
<i>V2W2</i>	nt	42.4 ± 3.5	27.8 ± 3.8 ^c	19.7 ± 3.0	30.1 ± 2.5	nt	25.6 ± 3.3	13.3 ± 2.0	nt
<i>Emb2.4o</i>	nt	nt	37.0 ± 3.3 ^{abc}	24.2 ± 4.1	nt	20.8 ± 1.8	25.0 ± 2.1	16.9 ± 1.7	nt
<i>P</i> -value	0.6199	0.0861	0.0008	0.0899	0.2989	0.2373	0.6152	0.0830	0.7601
CV	13.0	19.1	22.3	31.3	23.9	20.3	21.1	31.8	20.0

* Mean ± S.E

Means and standard errors were calculated from untransformed data. Statistical analysis was performed on sqrt (x +0.5) transformed data. Each column represents one experiment. nt, not tested. In columns, means followed by the same small letter (superscript) are not statistically different at P=0.05 according to Tukey's studentized range test.

Table 10: The effect of endophytic *Fusarium oxysporum* isolates on fresh shoot weight of 16-week-old tissue culture banana plants of the cv. Enyeru (*Musa* spp. AAA-EA), 8-weeks after inoculation with 500 nematodes.

Treatment	*Fresh shoot weight (g)								
	Experiment No.								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Control	84.4 ± 4.3	95.5 ± 7.0	82.7 ± 6.1 ^b	67.5 ± 5.5	54.8 ± 2.7	49.2 ± 2.9	64.1 ± 4.4	26.3 ± 4.1 ^b	53.5 ± 2.9
<i>Eny.131i</i>	96.7 ± 3.6	103.7 ± 6.1	106.8 ± 5.9 ^{ab}	52.1 ± 6.2	45.4 ± 5.9	nt	63.8 ± 3.7	44.7 ± 4.1 ^a	53.1 ± 2.3
<i>V5W2</i>	95.4 ± 3.1	104.7 ± 6.2	117.1 ± 3.2 ^{ab}	70.3 ± 4.8	nt	52.5 ± 3.5	66.6 ± 1.7	nt	59.4 ± 2.5
<i>III4W1</i>	94.0 ± 2.4	98.7 ± 5.8	117.8 ± 5.3 ^{ab}	71.8 ± 4.4	52.7 ± 2.4	nt	58.5 ± 3.6	33.7 ± 2.3 ^{ab}	59.9 ± 1.9
<i>Eny7.11o</i>	94.0 ± 3.5	100.1 ± 2.8	170.3 ± 56.1 ^a	67.8 ± 6.1	57.4 ± 3.3	nt	66.4 ± 4.5	37.9 ± 3.6 ^{ab}	nt
<i>V4W5</i>	95.2 ± 3.2	101.4 ± 6.2	113.7 ± 6.2 ^{ab}	50.2 ± 6.4	53.4 ± 3.7	nt	66.5 ± 3.3	35.6 ± 4.2 ^{ab}	nt
<i>III3W3</i>	87.4 ± 3.1	105.4 ± 3.9	105.4 ± 4.3 ^{ab}	69.3 ± 8.1	52.7 ± 2.4	nt	60.3 ± 3.0	28.0 ± 3.7 ^{ab}	nt
<i>VIW7</i>	nt	89.2 ± 8.0	109.9 ± 8.7 ^{ab}	55.0 ± 9.4	nt	56.1 ± 2.8	65.1 ± 2.6	nt	nt
<i>V2W2</i>	nt	94.1 ± 4.9	94.3 ± 8.8 ^b	66.3 ± 4.7	54.2 ± 3.2	nt	56.0 ± 5.2	39.8 ± 3.5 ^{ab}	nt
<i>Emb2.4o</i>	nt	nt	108.5 ± 4.3 ^{ab}	64.2 ± 6.5	nt	49.7 ± 2.9	60.9 ± 4.2	41.2 ± 2.8 ^{ab}	nt
<i>P</i> -value	0.0594	0.6670	0.0156	0.1695	0.2509	0.3884	0.4345	0.0170	0.1004
CV	8.1	13.5	20.6	18.8	14.5	12.6	13.3	17.7	11.8

* Mean ± S.E

Means and standard errors were calculated from untransformed data. Statistical analysis was performed on $\sqrt{x+0.5}$ transformed data. Each column represents one experiment; nt= not tested. In columns, means followed by the same small letter (superscript) are not statistically different at $P=0.05$ according to Tukey's studentized range test.

Table 11: The effect of endophytic *Fusarium oxysporum* isolates on dry shoot weights of 16-week-old tissue culture banana plants of the cv. Enyeru (*Musa* spp. AAA-EA), 8-weeks after inoculation with 500 nematodes.

Treatment	*Dry shoot weight (g)								
	Experiment No.								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Control	22.8 ± 2.3	12.9 ± 1.9	12.7 ± 0.8 ^b	8.8 ± 0.7	6.6 ± 0.2	6.0 ± 0.3	14.3 ± 0.6	3.2 ± 0.4 ^b	6.6 ± 0.3
<i>Eny.131i</i>	21.4 ± 2.4	14.6 ± 2.1	15.6 ± 1.1 ^{ab}	6.7 ± 0.7	5.7 ± 0.7	nt	14.4 ± 0.5	5.2 ± 0.3 ^a	6.5 ± 0.3
<i>V5W2</i>	22.7 ± 2.6	12.6 ± 1.4	17.4 ± 0.7 ^{ab}	9.1 ± 0.5	nt	6.6 ± 0.4	14.4 ± 0.3	nt	7.1 ± 0.3
<i>III4W1</i>	22.5 ± 2.4	14.0 ± 1.7	18.7 ± 1.3 ^a	9.4 ± 0.5	6.5 ± 0.2	nt	13.8 ± 0.6	3.9 ± 0.3 ^{ab}	7.3 ± 0.3
<i>V4W5</i>	25.6 ± 2.4	16.7 ± 1.9	14.3 ± 1.2 ^{ab}	6.4 ± 0.8	6.2 ± 0.4	nt	14.8 ± 0.6	4.5 ± 0.4 ^{ab}	nt
<i>Eny7.11o</i>	23.0 ± 2.8	11.7 ± 0.6	16.1 ± 0.9 ^{ab}	8.9 ± 0.8	6.8 ± 0.3	nt	14.8 ± 0.4	4.5 ± 0.4 ^{ab}	nt
<i>III3W3</i>	23.1 ± 2.4	14.9 ± 1.7	15.5 ± 0.9 ^{ab}	8.9 ± 1.0	6.3 ± 0.3	nt	14.4 ± 0.4	3.3 ± 0.4 ^{ab}	nt
<i>VIW7</i>	nt	11.1 ± 1.5	15.7 ± 0.7 ^{ab}	7.3 ± 1.2	nt	6.7 ± 0.3	14.6 ± 0.4	nt	nt
<i>V2W2</i>	nt	10.5 ± 0.9	13.5 ± 1.1 ^b	8.6 ± 0.7	6.4 ± 0.3	nt	13.8 ± 0.8	4.9 ± 0.4 ^{ab}	nt
<i>Emb2.4o</i>	nt	nt	19.5 ± 1.9 ^a	8.4 ± 0.9	nt	6.1 ± 0.3	13.8 ± 0.4	4.9 ± 0.2 ^{ab}	nt
P-value	0.9420	0.1305	0.0004	0.1580	0.4129	0.3524	0.8623	0.0105	0.2183
CV	23.2	21.3	14.3	17.9	12.7	10.5	7.8	15.1	12.2

* Mean ± S.E

Means and standard errors were calculated from untransformed data. Statistical analysis was performed on sqrt(x +0.5) transformed data. Each column represents one experiment; nt= not tested. In columns, means followed by the same small letter (superscript) are not statistically different at P=0.05 according to Tukey's studentized range test.

Table 12: The effect of endophytic *Fusarium oxysporum* isolates on the number of functional roots of 16-week-old tissue culture banana plants of the cv. Enyeru (*Musa* spp. AAA-EA), 8-weeks after inoculation with 500 nematodes.

Treatment	*Number of functional roots								
	Experiment No.								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Control	18.4 ± 0.9	15.2 ± 1.3	14.3 ± 0.9 ^{ab}	9.0 ± 1.1	10.9 ± 0.8 ^a	10.1 ± 0.6 ^a	10.5 ± 1.0	5.8 ± 1.2	9.6 ± 0.8 ^b
<i>Eny.131i</i>	19.2 ± 0.8	14.4 ± 1.2	14.3 ± 0.7 ^{ab}	5.8 ± 0.8	6.3 ± 1.2 ^b	nt	11.6 ± 0.8	8.3 ± 1.0	13.0 ± 1.2 ^a
<i>V5W2</i>	18.4 ± 0.8	16.8 ± 1.2	17.8 ± 0.7 ^a	7.9 ± 1.1	nt	8.1 ± 0.9 ^{ab}	11.1 ± 0.7	nt	10.8 ± 0.6 ^{ab}
<i>III4W1</i>	18.1 ± 0.6	16.7 ± 0.7	18.5 ± 0.7 ^a	9.4 ± 0.9	10.5 ± 0.7 ^a	nt	11.3 ± 1.1	6.6 ± 0.9	11.0 ± 0.6 ^{ab}
<i>V4W5</i>	18.4 ± 0.4	18.5 ± 0.7	16.5 ± 0.8 ^{ab}	7.8 ± 1.0	11.0 ± 1.0 ^a	nt	12.2 ± 0.9	6.3 ± 1.1	nt
<i>Eny7.11o</i>	18.4 ± 0.7	17.5 ± 1.3	15.7 ± 0.7 ^{ab}	9.3 ± 1.3	9.4 ± 0.8 ^{ab}	nt	11.5 ± 1.4	7.1 ± 0.7	nt
<i>III3W3</i>	18.0 ± 0.9	17.0 ± 0.8	15.2 ± 0.9 ^{ab}	7.6 ± 1.2	9.0 ± 0.9 ^{ab}	nt	10.3 ± 0.7	6.1 ± 0.9	nt
<i>V1W7</i>	nt	14.4 ± 1.7	16.5 ± 0.9 ^{ab}	5.0 ± 0.8	nt	8.1 ± 0.7 ^{ab}	11.1 ± 0.9	nt	nt
<i>V2W2</i>	nt	14.7 ± 0.8	13.6 ± 1.0 ^b	8.1 ± 0.4	9.8 ± 0.7 ^a	nt	10.5 ± 1.1	8.0 ± 1.2	nt
<i>Emb2.4o</i>	nt	nt	14.6 ± 0.9 ^{ab}	8.7 ± 1.1	nt	6.7 ± 0.7 ^b	10.3 ± 0.7	6.9 ± 0.4	nt
<i>P</i> -value	0.9526	0.1816	0.0016	0.1497	0.0065	0.0339	0.9475	0.5846	0.0400
CV	9.6	15.9	12.4	24.4	24.7	20.7	20.8	25.0	20.2

* Mean ± S.E

Means and standard errors were calculated from untransformed data. Statistical analysis was performed on $\sqrt{x+0.5}$ transformed data. Each column represents one experiment; nt=not tested. In columns, means followed by the same small letter (superscript) are not statistically different at $P=0.05$ according to Tukey's studentized range test.

Table 13: Percentage colonization of 16-week-old tissue culture banana plants of the cv. Enyeru (*Musa* spp. AAA-EA) by various endophytic *Fusarium oxysporum* isolates inoculated at the weaning stage.

Fungal isolate	*Colonization of roots (%)		
	Experiment No.		
	2	7	9
Control	45.2 ± 8.3	36.0 ± 12.7	16.6 ± 4.3
<i>Eny.131i</i>	68.8 ± 5.2	48.0 ± 20.3	17.5 ± 4.9
<i>V5W2</i>	58.4 ± 4.7	34.6 ± 15.1	22.4 ± 5.7
<i>III4W1</i>	44.9 ± 9.3	25.3 ± 12.0	17.5 ± 5.3
<i>V4W5</i>	50.3 ± 6.0	24.0 ± 10.8	nt
<i>Eny7.11o</i>	63.3 ± 6.1	65.3 ± 8.3	nt
<i>III3W3</i>	47.4 ± 8.9	36.0 ± 13.1	nt
<i>V1W7</i>	56.9 ± 4.2	38.6 ± 7.7	nt
<i>V2W2</i>	49.1 ± 4.0	53.3 ± 15.3	nt
<i>Emb2.4o</i>	nt	22.6 ± 11.6	nt
<i>P</i> -value	0.1171	0.4467	0.8519

* Mean ± S.E
nt=not tested

Chapter 4

Effect of endophytic *Fusarium oxysporum* isolates on host preference, attraction, root penetration and reproduction of *Radopholus similis* in tissue culture banana plants

Abstract

The effects of three endophytic *Fusarium oxysporum* isolates, *V5W2*, *Eny1.31i* and *Eny7.11o*, on host preference and attraction, root penetration and reproduction of *Radopholus similis* in tissue culture banana plants *cv.* Enyeru (*Musa* spp., AAA-EA) were evaluated under laboratory and screen house conditions. Treatment of tissue culture banana plants with the three isolates did not alter host preferences and attraction of *R. similis*, as similar numbers of nematodes migrated towards plants and root segments from both endophyte-inoculated and uninoculated plants. The number of *R. similis* that penetrated the roots of endophyte-inoculated and un-inoculated plants was not influenced by the three endophytic fungal isolates, either in the laboratory or in the screen house. *Radopholus similis* reproduction was, however, highly influenced by endophyte infection. Differences in *R. similis* reproduction rates between endophyte-inoculated and un-inoculated plants were observed at 50 and 75 days after nematode inoculation. No differences were observed 25 days after inoculation. Endophyte-un-inoculated plants supported higher nematode densities than endophyte-inoculated plants, and the nematode reproduction rates in control plants were 10, 4 and 3 times higher than in plants treated with isolates *V5W2*, *Eny7.11o* and *Eny1.31i* at 75 days after inoculation, respectively. Isolate *V5W2* resulted in the highest reduction in *R. similis* reproduction for all nematode stages (females, males and juveniles). The results of this study imply that the early processes of banana root infection by *R. similis* are not affected by endophytes and that the main endophyte effects are post-infectious and occur only during the nematode reproduction phase.

Introduction

Radopholus similis (Cobb) Thorne is a migratory endoparasite that completes its life cycle in the roots and rhizomes of banana plants (*Musa* spp.) in 20 to 25 days (Gowen and Quénehervé, 2005). Only female and juvenile stages are infective, as males have degenerate stylets. *Radopholus similis* penetrates banana roots at the root apex mainly, but penetration can also occur at any position along the root (Sarah *et al.*, 1996). After root penetration, the nematodes occupy the intercellular spaces of the cortical parenchyma. Nematodes may migrate both within and between cells in the root cortex to feed on cell cytoplasm. This results in collapsed cell walls, cavities and tunnels in the root (Sarah *et al.*, 1996). Symptoms of nematode damage become visible as reddish brown necrotic patches that are confined to the cortex region. In the rhizome, necrosis appears as a reddish-brown discoloration that begins where roots attach to the rhizome (Speijer and De Waele, 1997). Nematode feeding destroys root and rhizome tissue, reduces water and mineral uptake, and results in a reduction of plant growth and development. This leads to a severe reduction of bunch weight and a significant increase in time between successive harvests (Sarah *et al.*, 1996; Gowen *et al.*, 2005).

During their initial life stages nematodes migrate through the rhizosphere to the plant roots (Kaplan and Keen, 1980). Host recognition involves signals from plant roots that influence egg hatch, attraction towards roots and root penetration (Zhao *et al.*, 2000). Plant-parasitic nematodes are attracted to plant roots by a variety of factors, which may operate over considerable distances (Prot, 1980; Prot and Van Gundy, 1980; Zuckerman and Jansson, 1984; Spiegel *et al.*, 2001; Luc *et al.*, 2005). The major factors of nematode attraction to plant roots are chemostatic factors and secretions emanating from the host plant, while minor factors include thermal, vibratory and tactile stimuli (Prot, 1980; Zuckerman and Jansson, 1984; Perry, 1996). Following attraction, nematodes penetrate the host plant cells by using their stylets where they feed and reproduce.

Differences in the response of the host plant to nematode infection have been used to classify plants as resistant, tolerant, intolerant, host or non-host. Resistant plants allow for nematode penetration but not reproduction. Tolerant plants suffer little damage even when heavily infested, while susceptible plants suffer heavy damage under light nematode infestations. Plants are further classified as hosts or non-hosts depending on whether nematode

reproduction occurs or not. Plants that allow high nematode reproduction are classified as good hosts, while those that allow for low nematode reproduction are classified as non-hosts (Luc *et al.*, 2005).

Antagonistic microorganisms can reduce early root infection by nematodes. Oostendorp and Sikora (1989; 1990) reported a reduction in egg hatch and early root infection of sugar beet (*Beta Vulgaris* L.) by the sugar beet nematode *Heterodera schachtii* Schmidt after seed treatment with antagonistic rhizobacteria. However, the application of rhizobacteria to the root surface of sugar beet seedlings did not alter migration of *H. schachtii* second stage juveniles. The authors concluded that bacterial alteration of root exudates might have influenced nematode hatch, attraction and root penetration behavior.

Endophytic *Fusarium oxysporum* Schlecht.: Fries reduced *R. similis* populations in tissue culture banana plants (Chapter 3; Pocasangre, 2000; Niere, 2001; Gold and Dubois, 2005). The mechanism through which nematode populations were reduced, however, is unknown. The objectives of this study, therefore, were to determine the effect of endophytic *F. oxysporum* isolates on (i) host preferences and relative attractiveness of endophyte-inoculated plants to *R. similis* (ii) root penetration by *R. similis* and (iii) reproduction of *R. similis* in tissue culture banana plants.

Materials and methods

Site description

Experiments were carried out in the laboratory or screen house at the International Institute of Tropical Agriculture (IITA) Research Station in Namulonge-Uganda, approximately 30 km Northeast of Kampala, Uganda. The screen house air temperatures ranged from 19.1 to 32.8°C, while the soil temperature in the polythene bags ranged from 20.4 to 26.3°C. The site is situated at 1150 m above sea level, 32° 34'N latitude, with a mean annual rainfall of 1255 mm and an average temperature of 22°C.

Fungal isolates and nematode cultures

Three *F. oxysporum* isolates (*V5W2*, *Eny1.31i* and *Eny7.11o*) were included in all experiments. These isolates were obtained from healthy East African highland cooking banana plants roots and rhizomes in Uganda (Schuster *et al.*, 1995) and are preserved in soil tubes (Niere, 2001). The isolates were selected on their ability to consistently reduce nematode population build-up in banana plants in *in vivo* screening experiments (Chapter 3). Pure *R. similis* cultures maintained on carrot disks were used as the source of nematode inoculum (Chapter 1; Speijer and De Waele, 1997).

Tissue culture plants

Tissue culture banana plants of the cultivar Enyeru (*Musa* spp. AAA-EA) were used in this study. The plants were micropropagated from sword suckers using standard shoot-tip culture protocols for banana (Vuylsteke, 1998). When ready for weaning, plants were transferred to an aquaculture system comprised of 250-ml lidded plastic pots filled with 200 ml of nutrient solution to allow for root development prior to inoculation with the endophytes (Fig. 1). The nutrient solution was prepared by dissolving a commercial fertilizer in sterilized (autoclaved at 121°C for 15 min) tap water. In the root penetration experiments, plants were fertilized with Multifeed Classic (Gouws and Scheepers Ltd., Witfield, South Africa) at a rate of 2.5 g/L (Table 1). For the *R. similis* host preference, attraction and reproduction experiments, plants were grown in 1 g/L of Poly-Feed (Haifa Chemicals, Haifa Bay, Israel) (Table 1). In each pot, a plant was supported by the lid with the roots submerged in the nutrient solution. Strips of sterile sponge were used to stabilize the plants through a hole made in the middle of the lids. To simulate dark soil conditions and to discourage growth of algae on the roots, the pots were wrapped with a brown paper bag. The plastic pots then were transferred to a humidity chamber (Chapter 3) for a 1-month acclimatization period, during which the nutrient solution was renewed weekly.

Inoculation of plants with fungal isolates

The fungal isolates were pre-grown on synthetic nutrient agar (SNA) (1 g KH₂PO₄, 1 g KNO₃, 0.5 g MgSO₄·7H₂O, 0.5 g KCl, 0.2 g glucose, 0.2 g sucrose, 0.6 ml NaOH (1 M) and 13.2 g agar/L distilled water) in 65-mm-diameter Petri dishes at ± 25°C and 12 hrs light, 12 hrs darkness photoperiod (laboratory conditions) for 1 week. The SNA medium was supplemented with 10 mg chlortetracycline, 100 mg penicillin G and 50 mg streptomycin-sulphate/L to prevent bacterial contamination. Half strength potato dextrose broth (PDB) (Sigma-Aldrich, MO, USA) was prepared by dissolving 12 g of PDB in 1 L of distilled water. One hundred-ml aliquots of PDB were dispensed into 250-ml Erlenmeyer flasks and sterilized. After cooling, flasks were inoculated with 4 to 5 disks of agar of each fungal isolate. Uninoculated PDB was used as the control treatment. Duplicate flasks were prepared for each fungal isolate and the control. Inoculated flasks were incubated in the laboratory for 7 days to allow for fungal growth and sporulation. Fungal spore suspensions were filtered through a 1-mm-diameter sieve to remove mycelial fragments. The spore suspensions were then adjusted to provide a final spore count of 1.5×10^6 spores/ml.

For the inoculation of banana tissue culture plants with endophytic *F. oxysporum* isolates, 1-month-old plants were removed from the nutrient solution and the roots cut back to 10 cm in length. Plants were selected for uniformity according to size and subdivided among the different treatments. To inoculate the plants with the different fungal isolates, the root systems were dipped in the different fungal spore suspensions for 2 hrs. Control plants were dipped in sterile un-inoculated PDB for the same duration of time. After fungal inoculation, plants were transplanted in steam-pasteurized heavy loamy soil either into 3-L polythene bags for the root penetration and reproduction experiments, or into 250-ml plastic pots for the host preferences and attraction experiments.

To determine colonization of plant roots by the fungal isolates, three healthy primary roots were randomly selected from each plant at harvest and surface sterilized in 75% ethanol for 1 min, followed by sterilization in 2% NaOCl for 30 s. Root pieces were blotted dry on sterile tissue paper and cut into ca. 0.25 cm-long segments. Six segments per root were randomly selected and placed on SNA in 65-mm-diameter Petri dishes. The plates were incubated in the laboratory for 7 days under laboratory conditions. Fungal colonies growing from the root

pieces were identified under a light microscope (magnification x 400) as *F. oxysporum* based on the presence of microconidia carried in false heads on short phialides, the shape of macroconidia and the presence of chlamydospores (Nelson *et al.*, 1983). The number of root pieces with *F. oxysporum* colonies were recorded and the percentage recovery of the fungus calculated.

Host preference and attraction experiments

Two experiments were conducted to investigate host preference and relative attractiveness of endophyte-inoculated and un-inoculated (control) banana plants to *R. similis*. Each experiment was repeated once. These included a detached root bioassay where root segments from endophyte-inoculated and uninoculated banana plants were paired in a Petri dish, and an intact plant bioassay using endophyte-inoculated and un-inoculated banana plants paired in a polyvinyl chloride (PVC) tube apparatus. Both experiments had seven treatments that involved combinations of the three endophyte-inoculated *V5W2* (E1), *Eny1.31i* (E2) and *Eny7.11o* (E3) and uninoculated (C) banana plants in the following pairs: C-C, C-E1, C-E2, C-E3, E1-E1, E2-E2 and E3-E3. The detached root bioassay and the intact plant bioassay were replicated four and five times, respectively.

Detached root bioassay for host preference and attraction

Endophyte-inoculated and uninoculated plants were uprooted 1 month after being transplanted into the 250-ml pots and washed free of soil. In the laboratory, healthy roots of the same age and size were selected from the plants and cut into 1-cm-long segments. For each replication, root segments were obtained from the same plant. Root segments from endophyte-inoculated and uninoculated plants were paired and placed on opposite sides in 90-mm-diameter Petri dishes filled with a 50-mm thick layer of moistened sterile sand (Fig. 2). The bottom of the Petri dish was divided into two equal sections, A and B, and two root segments from either an endophyte-inoculated or uninoculated plant placed in each of the sections. The distance between the root segments was 70 mm, and each root segment was placed 10 mm away from the wall of the Petri dish. Petri dishes were covered and left to stand for 12 hrs. Approximately 500 *R. similis* mixed stages (females, males and juveniles) in 0.3 ml water were inoculated in the middle of the Petri dish equal distances from the root

segments using a micropipette. After 24 hrs, nematodes were extracted from the sand and from root segments on either side of the inoculation point by means of the modified Baermann technique (Hooper *et al.*, 2005). Extraction from the sand was carried out for 48 hrs by spreading the sand on the tissue paper in the modified Baermann funnel apparatus. Nematodes were extracted for 24 hrs from the root segments following maceration in a Waring blender (Waring, Connecticut, USA) at low speed for 15 s.

Intact plant bioassay for host preference and attraction

A PVC tube apparatus was designed to determine whether *R. similis* is differentially attracted to endophyte-inoculated or uninoculated (control) banana plant roots (Prot, 1979). The PVC apparatus consisted of a 22.5-cm-long and 5-cm-diameter PVC tube divided into seven sections, each 2.5 cm long (Fig. 3). The sections were filled with moistened sterile heavy loam soil and joined together with adhesive tape. The use of PVC pipes not only reduced the amount of soil from which nematodes had to be extracted, but also restricted nematode movement from the point of inoculation to either of the two direction.

Endophyte-inoculated and uninoculated plants transplanted into 250-ml plastic pots were grown until they were 8 weeks old. An endophyte-inoculated plant was then paired with an uninoculated plant on opposite sides of the PVC apparatus. The bottom parts of the pots were first removed to expose the roots, and the pots were then fixed to the ends of the PVC tubes in section number 1 and number 7 (Fig 3). Treatments were paired in such a way that the first plant which is either endophyte-inoculated (E1, E2 or E3) or uninoculated (C) in each treatment pair was placed in PVC section number 1 and the last in section number 7. A 3-mm-diameter opening was drilled at the top of the middle of each PVC section to facilitate watering and nematode inoculation.

One week after transplanting the banana plants into the PVC apparatus, 2000 mixed stages of *R. similis* were pipetted into the soil in the middle section (section 4) that was an equal distance from both plants. The tubes were maintained horizontally at laboratory conditions. The PVC sections were separated 5 days after introduction of the nematodes by cutting through the adhesive tape using a knife. The number of nematodes in each section was determined by extracting the nematodes from the soil over 48 hrs using the modified

Baermann funnel method (Hooper *et al.*, 2005). Nematode extraction from the plant's roots in sections number 1 and 7 was conducted for 24 hrs after maceration in a Waring blender for 15 s. Nematode suspensions were concentrated on a 28- μ m sieve prior to counting.

Root penetration experiments

To study the effect of endophytes on root penetration by *R. similis*, two experiments were conducted on 8-week-old banana plants inoculated with three different fungal endophytes (*V5W2*, *Eny1.31i* and *Eny7.11o*). The first experiment involved the *in vitro* root penetration of endophyte-inoculated and un-inoculated plants by nematodes in the laboratory. The second experiment was an *in vivo* root penetration experiment in the screen house, conducted as a time course study. Nematode inoculation was performed on the whole root system and plants were sampled to determine the number of nematodes that had penetrated into the roots 3, 6 10 and 14 days after inoculation. Six plants were randomly harvested after each time interval. Each experiment was repeated twice.

In vitro root penetration experiments

Endophyte-inoculated and un-inoculated banana plants were uprooted from their polythene bags and their roots washed free of soil. These plants were then transplanted to rectangular plastic trays (90 x 143 x 230 mm) that were filled with *ca.* 500 cm³ moistened sterile sand (Fig 4). A hole was cut on the side of the trays, and a slit made from the rim to the hole to facilitate placement of the plant. A strip of sponge was used to stabilise the plants and avoid damage to their pseudostems. Three 65-mm-diameter Petri dishes in which two V-shaped cuts were made on the opposite sides were placed inside the trays and filled with moistened sterile sand. Three healthy primary roots of the same size and age were randomly selected from the transplanted plants, and each one of roots placed inside one of the three Petri dishes.

A nematode suspension containing a total of 50 *R. similis* mixed stages in *ca.* 0.1 ml of water was pipetted directly on the root segments in each Petri dishes 24 hrs after transfer of the plants. The roots were then covered with sterile sand. The plastic trays were covered with a lid to prevent dehydration of the plants and root segments. Inoculated root segments were excised after 24 hrs and stained with acid fuchsin to observe nematodes that had penetrated

the roots (Byrd *et al.*, 1983). After staining, root segments were flattened between two microscope slides and the number of nematodes visible in the root tissue was recorded. There were five plants for each treatment, with three roots selected per plant, each representing a single replication (i.e. a total of 15 replications per treatment).

In vivo root penetration experiments

Eight-week-old endophyte-inoculated and un-inoculated banana plants grown in 3-L polythene bags were inoculated with a nematode inoculum containing 500 mixed stages of *R. similis* per 2 ml water as follows. Three holes were made at the base of the plants around the roots. To each hole, *ca.* 0.6 ml of the nematode suspension was pipetted, and the hole covered with soil. Six plants from each treatment were then uprooted 3, 6, 10 and 14 days after nematode inoculation. Nematodes were extracted from 5 g of each root samples by first macerating them in a Waring blender at low speed for 15 s, and subsequently collecting the nematodes for 24 hrs using a modified Baermann technique (Hooper *et al.*, 2005). Nematode suspensions were transferred into sample bottles and kept in the fridge at 4°C until counted. Prior to counting, nematode suspensions were concentrated on a 28-µm sieve.

***Radopholus similis* reproduction experiments**

A single-root inoculation technique developed for screening banana plants for resistance to *R. similis* (De Schutter *et al.*, 2001) was adopted to study the effects of endophytes on *R. similis* reproduction. One-month-old endophyte-inoculated and un-inoculated plants were grown for a further 2 months in 3-L plastic polythene bags after acclimatization in the humidity chamber. The 3-month-old plants were then uprooted and their roots separated. The plants were placed into 24 x 54 cm plastic buckets filled three quarters with sterile sawdust (Fig. 5). Three equally developed primary roots were selected from each plant and planted in 150-ml plastic pots filled with moistened sterile sand. After transplanting, the roots not planted in the pots were covered with sterile soil. A nematode suspension containing 50 *R. similis* in approximately 0.3 ml of sterile water was pipetted directly onto each of the root segments planted inside the plastic pots. The inoculated roots were then also covered with moistened sterile sand. Following inoculation, the banana plants were maintained in the screen house (20.4 to 26.3°C) and watered two times per week.

Nematodes were extracted from inoculated banana roots 25, 50 and 75 days after nematode inoculation. At each harvest date, five plants were randomly selected and the plastic pots excavated from the sawdust. The root segments inside the pots were removed and washed with tap water. The percentage root necrosis was determined by slicing each root segment lengthwise and estimating the percentage necrotic area (Speijer and De Waele, 1997). The sliced root segment was then cut into 0.5-cm pieces and macerated in a Waring blender at low speed for 15 s. Nematodes were extracted from the macerated root tissue over 24 hrs using the modified Baermann funnel method (Hooper *et al.*, 2005). All *R. similis* stages (females, males, juveniles) were counted. Nematode reproduction rates (RR) were calculated by dividing the final population density (P_f) with the initial population density (P_i). Reisolation of fungal endophytes was conducted on the root segments adjacent to nematode inoculated root segment as described above.

Data analysis

Nematode data in each experiment were tested for normality and homogeneity of variances using the Shapiro-Wilkinson, Levene-Welch and Kolmogorov tests. Normal probability plots, box plots and stem leaf plots were additionally used to confirm normality of data. If not normally distributed with equal variances across treatments, various transformations were tested until the most suitable transformation was obtained.

For the host preference and nematode attraction bioassays using detached roots in Petri dishes, statistical analysis was performed on untransformed data. One-way ANOVA was used to demonstrate differences in the total number of nematodes in each treatment pair. If different, treatment means were separated using Tukey's Studentized range test. Within each treatment pair, differences between treatments were evaluated using a paired t-test.

For the bioassay using intact plants in the PVC tube apparatus and for the *R. similis* reproduction experiments, nematode counts were square root (sqrt) ($x+0.5$)-transformed prior to analysis. Within each treatment, differences between the proportion of nematodes attracted to either endophyte-inoculated or uninoculated plants were evaluated using a paired t-test. For the reproduction experiments, a two-way ANOVA was conducted to demonstrate variability among treatments (control and fungal isolates) and days after nematode inoculation. Prior to

analysis, the nematode RR was sqrt-transformed $x+0.5$ to normalise data. Percentage root necrosis and colonization were arcsine sqrt-transformed $x+0.5$ prior to analysis. If different, means were separated using Tukey's studentized range test (SAS Institute, 1989).

Results

Host preference and attraction experiments

Detached root bioassay for host preference and attraction

Similar numbers of nematodes were attracted to banana roots, whether they were inoculated or uninoculated with *F. oxysporum* endophytes (Fig. 6 and 7). Comparison between the total numbers of *R. similis* that migrated towards opposite sections of the Petri dish containing either an endophyte-inoculated or un-inoculated root segment revealed no significant differences between any of the treatments pair (Table 2). When two endophyte-uninoculated root segments (treatment pair C-C) were paired in opposite sides of a Petri dish, the number of nematodes attracted to either root segment did not differ significantly (Table 2). Likewise, when an endophyte-uninoculated root segment was paired with an endophyte-inoculated root segment (treatment pairs C-E1, C-E2 and C-E3), the number of nematodes that migrated towards either root segment did not differ significantly. When two endophyte-inoculated root segments were paired (treatment combinations E1-E1, E2-E2 and E3-E3), no differences were observed in the number of *R. similis* that migrated towards either root segment (Table 2). The only exception was observed in experiment 2, when two root segments infected with isolate *Eny1.31i* (E2-E2) and isolate *Eny7.11o* (E3-E3) were paired, where significant differences in the number of *R. similis* that migrated to either root segment were observed (Table 2).

Intact plant bioassay for host preference and attraction

THE EXPERIMENTS USED TO DETERMINE NEMATODE ATTRACTION SHOWED THAT THE NUMBER OF NEMATODES (EXPRESSED AS A PERCENTAGE OF THE TOTAL NEMATODES RECOVERED PER TREATMENT) THAT MIGRATED FROM THE POINT OF INOCULATION IN PVC TUBES DID NOT DIFFER BETWEEN THE TREATMENT PAIRS. IN EXPERIMENT 1 ($P=0.1544$), THE PROPORTION OF NEMATODES THAT MIGRATED RANGED FROM $10.2 \pm 3.5\%$ IN TREATMENT PAIR E3-E3 (TWO *ENY7.11O*-INFECTED PLANTS PAIRED) TO $35.9 \pm 3.5\%$ IN C-C (WHEN TWO CONTROL PLANTS WERE PAIRED). IN BIOASSAY 2 ($P=0.3776$) THE PROPORTION OF NEMATODES THAT MIGRATED FROM THE POINT OF INOCULATION RANGED FROM 40.4 ± 1.6 WHEN TWO *ENY7.11O*-TREATED PLANTS WERE PAIRED TO $57.7 \pm 10.1\%$ WHEN A CONTROL PLANT WAS PAIRED WITH A PLANT TREATED WITH *ENY.11O*. PAIRED T-TESTS DEMONSTRATED THAT THE PROPORTION OF

NEMATODES THAT MIGRATED TO OPPOSITE SIDES OF THE INOCULATION POINT TOWARDS EITHER AN ENDOPHYTE-INOCULATED PLANT OR UNINOCULATED PLANT DID NOT DIFFER AMONG THE TREATMENT PAIRS IN BOTH BIOASSAYS EXCEPT IN THE TREATMENT WERE TWO *ENY7.110*-INFECTED PLANTS WERE PAIRED (TABLE 3).

In both bioassays, the total number of nematodes present in each section of the PVC tube differed significantly between the sections ($P < 0.0001$) and was influenced by the distance from the nematode inoculation point. In all treatment pairs, most nematodes were found in the middle section (section 4), the point of nematode inoculation (Fig. 8 A and B), with less nematodes in sections further from the point of nematode inoculation. The number of nematodes recorded in sections at the same distance from the point of nematode inoculation was not different within a given treatment ($P < 0.05$).

Root penetration experiments

In vitro experiments

No significant difference was found in the number of nematodes that penetrated root segments of endophyte-inoculated and uninoculated plants 24 hrs after inoculation with *R. similis* ($P = 0.6064$, 0.2528 and 0.8752 for experiment 1, 2 and 3 respectively) (Fig. 9). Nematodes were observed in the cortex region of the root segments only and not the stele.

In vivo experiments

No significant differences in the penetration of banana roots by *R. similis* were observed between the endophyte-inoculated and uninoculated banana plants planted in polythene bags (Table 4). There were also no significant differences in the number of nematodes that penetrated the roots 3, 6, 10 and 14 days after nematode inoculation for any of the treatments.

Radopholus similis reproduction

Endophyte treatment significantly reduced the number of *R. similis* females, males, juveniles and the total nematode density at 75 days after nematode inoculation (DAI) in the first

experiment, but not the second one (Table 5). In the former, the percentage reduction in *R. similis* females was 65.0%, 67.4% and 35.5% after 75 days, whilst juvenile numbers compared to the control were lower by 55.2%, 77.4% and 90.8% in plants infected with *Eny1.31i*, *Eny7.11o* and *V5W2*, respectively. The reduction in the number of *R. similis* males was 63.4%, 83.6% and 92.8% and the reduction in the total nematode density was 65.7%, 76.5% and 90.2% in plants treated with the fungal isolates *Eny1.31i*, *Eny7.11o* and *V5W2* respectively compared to control plants (Table 5). In the second experiment, only isolate *V5W2* resulted in less females, males, juveniles and the total nematode density although this did not differ significantly from the control. Isolates *Eny1.31i* and *Eny7.11o*-treated plants had more nematode than the controls 75 DAI (Table 5).

No differences were observed in the number of females, juveniles, males and the total nematode density between endophyte-inoculated and un-inoculated plants at 25 and 50 DAI, (Table 5). Although not significantly different, *R. similis* female numbers were lower by 71.1, 40.5 and 23.0% in plants infected with the fungal isolates *Eny1.31i*, *Eny7.11o* and *V5W2* 50 DAI, respectively, compared to the un-inoculated plants. Similarly, the number of *R. similis* juveniles was lower by 50.7%, 51.7% and 18.6% in plants treated with the fungal isolates *Eny1.31i*, *Eny7.11o* and *V5W2*, respectively (Table 5). The most important reduction in the second experiment, although not significant, was achieved with *Eny1.31i* that reduced nematode numbers by 62.9% after 25 DAI, and after 50 days, juvenile numbers by 78.5%, 24.3% and 43.4%, and males were reduced by 74.2, 15.2 and 37.7% in plants treated with isolates *Eny1.31i*, *Eny7.11o* and *V5W2* respectively.

The DAI affected the female, male, juvenile and total *R. similis* density significantly influenced ($P < 0.0001$) in both endophyte-inoculated and uninoculated plants. No differences were observed in the nematode numbers at 50 and 75 DAI in both endophyte-treated plants while the number of nematodes in both endophyte-inoculated and un-inoculated plants at 25 DAI were significantly lower than those at 50 and 75 DAI ($P < 0.0001$).

Treatment with endophytes did not significantly reduce the damage caused by nematodes to banana roots (percentage root necrosis) ($P = 0.5593$), but the damage was reduced significant over time ($P = 0.0239$) (Table 6). At 25 and 75 DAI, plants had similar levels of damage, whether they were inoculated with endophytes or not. The only significant differences in

percentage root necrosis were observed in experiment 1 50 DAI where plants treated with *V5W2* and *Eny1.31i* had significantly more necrosis than control plants, but not in experiment 2 (Table 6).

Nematode reproduction rate (RR) was significantly reduced by endophyte treatment after 75 days in experiment 1, but not experiment 2 (Table 6). At 25 and 50 DAI, no significant differences were observed in the RR between endophyte-inoculated and un-inoculated plants. For both endophyte-inoculated and un-inoculated plants, the nematode RR increased with an increase in DAI, except for *V5W2*-treated plants where the RR was higher at 50 DAI than at 75 DAI (Table 7).

Endophytic colonization of banana roots

In the *in vivo* root penetration experiments, the percentage colonization of plants treated with isolates *Eny1.31i* ($16.9 \pm 6.8\%$), *Eny7.11o* ($15.5 \pm 5.9\%$) and *V5W2* ($20.5 \pm 5.5\%$) was higher than in the control plants ($3.6 \pm 2.9\%$). Root colonization increased with increase in the days after nematode inoculation (DAI). In experiments 1 and 3, colonization was significantly influenced by treatment ($P=0.0003$) but not by DAI ($P=0.6210$). Lowest root colonization was recorded in endophyte-un-inoculated plants compared to colonization rates in roots inoculated with the various fungal isolates.

At all harvest dates in the first *R. similis* reproduction experiment, percentage colonization of roots by endophytic *F. oxysporum* did not differ between endophyte-inoculated and un-inoculated plants (Table 6). Significant differences, however, were found between un-inoculated and endophyte-inoculated plants 25 ($P=0.0002$) and 75 ($P=0.0004$) DAI. Although *F. oxysporum* was re-isolated from control plants 50 DAI, no isolations were made 25 and 50 DAI in either experiment. Still, the difference between the control and endophyte treatments was not significant, even where control yielded 0% re-isolation, and the treated plants 61% re-isolation.

Discussion

This study has demonstrated that endophyte-inoculated roots of tissue culture banana plants did not influence host preferences, attraction and penetration by *R. similis*. This is evident from the lack of repulsion or attraction of *R. similis* in the host preference and attraction experiments. Similar penetration rates into plant roots indicate that the initial processes of host recognition and root penetration, and invasion are not affected by the endophytes tested. The results suggest that, once in the field, roots of plants infected with the endophytic *F. oxysporum* isolates used in this study will still be infected by *R. similis*. However, endophytes inhibit reproduction of the nematode over several generations.

The results obtained in the current study are in contrast to those obtained with other fungal endophytes. Bernard and Gwinn (1991) reported that more nematodes (*Pratylenchus scribneri* Steiner) migrated towards endophyte-free tall fescue (*Festuca arundinacea* Schreb) root segments when both endophyte-infected and endophyte-free root segments were paired in a petri dish. Evidence that biological control agents other than endophytes affect early root infection by nematodes was demonstrated by Oostendorp and Sikora (1989; 1990). These authors reported a reduction in egg hatch and early root infection of sugar beet by the sugar beet nematode, *H. schachtii* after seed treatment with antagonistic rhizobacteria. Treatment of sugar beet seedlings with the rhizobacteria did not alter migration of *H. schachtii* second stage juveniles. These examples, however, involve different crops and nematode species and thus the response in banana may be different.

The results obtained in this study are in contrast to results obtained by Pocasangre (2000) who reported reduction in root penetration by *R. similis* in Cavendish banana plants treated with endophytic isolates of *Fusarium* spp. The contradiction in results may be due to the fact that the banana cultivars, *R. similis* populations and endophytic isolates in the two studies were different and experiments were conducted under different environmental conditions. In grasses, the presence of morphological barriers such as thickening of the endodermis in tall fescue (*Festuca arundinacea* Shreb.) infected by the endophyte *Neotyphodium coenophialium* ([Morgan-Jones and Gams] Glenn, Bacon, and Hanlin) was associated with reduced root penetration of root-knot nematodes *Meloidogyne marylandi* Jepson and Golden (Gwinn and Bernard, 1993) but not of the migratory nematode *Pratylenchus scribneri* Steiner. Reduced

root penetration subsequently led to reduced growth and reproduction of *M. marylandi* in the endophyte-infected grasses. In the current study, penetration into roots of endophyte-treated as well as untreated plants may be an indication that the endophytes did not induce morphological and structural changes that limit nematode penetration.

The complete life cycle of *R. similis* takes 20-25 days at a temperature range of 24-32°C (Loos, 1962). In the current study, nematodes reproduced both in endophyte-inoculated and un-inoculated plants. The nematode reproduction rates were, however, lower in endophyte-inoculated plants compared to uninoculated plants. Endophyte-inoculation did not have an effect on the first *R. similis* generation; reduction in nematode populations was observed at the second and third generation only. It is probable that, at 25 DAI, the nematodes that were found in the roots were those that survived after initial inoculation. The lower reproduction rates of *R. similis* in endophyte-treated plants during the second and third generations may probably be due to inhibition of nematode migration inside the plant roots, interference with the feeding processes or reduction in nematode reproduction capacity (Oostendorp and Sikora, 1989; 1990; Jones and Bernard, 1997). These conclusions, however, require further investigation. Another implication of these results is that endophytes may protect banana plants against *R. similis* for multiple nematode generations. Banana is a perennial crop and protection for several seasons by endophytes would greatly benefit the plant (Sikora *et al.*, 2003). Hunt *et al.* (2005) defined resistant plants as those that allow for nematode penetration but restrict nematode reproduction. Based on this definition, endophyte infection of tissue culture banana plants restricted nematode reproduction and thus conferred some degree of resistance to the host plant. The lack of differences in *R. similis* reproduction between endophyte-inoculated and uninoculated plants in one of the experiments may have been due to differences in the vigour of both the plants and nematode inoculum used. Large variation in the data may also be responsible for the observed lack of differences. Nevertheless, endophyte-inoculated plants supported less nematodes than uninoculated plants.

Endophytic colonization was higher in the endophyte-inoculated plants than in the non-inoculated plants, but not significantly different. The true identity of the re-isolated endophytic *F. oxysporum* strains, however, is unknown, since endophytic *F. oxysporum* strains have also been re-isolated from the control treatment. The endophytic *F. oxysporum* from non-inoculated plants could have come from the soil, water or screen house

environment. Before it is possible to deduce whether the inoculated *F. oxysporum* indeed contributed to the reduction in reproduction rates, and also to the non-significance of endophyte treatment in host preference, attraction and penetration, it would be necessary to conduct these experiments under greenhouse conditions that prevent the re-introduction of endophytes into control plants. Colonization of control plants by *F. oxysporum*, however, is a common occurrence in screen house studies, and has been reported before by Niere (2001) and Paparu (2005). Niere (2001) reported colonization of uninoculated plants of up to 40%, while Paparu (2005) reported up to 15% colonization of uninoculated plants.

References

- Bernard, E.C. and Gwinn K. D. (1991). Behavior and reproduction of *Meloidogyne marylandi* and *Pratylenchus scribneri* in roots and rhizosphere of endophyte-infected tall rescue. Abstracts: Society of Nematologists, 30th Annual Meeting. Baltimore, Maryland, USA. 7-11 July.
- Byrd, D.W., Kirkpatrick, T. Jr. and Barker, K.R. (1983). An improved technique for clearing and staining plant tissues for detection of nematodes. *Journal of Nematology* 15: 142-143.
- De Schutter, B., Speijer, P.R., Dochez, C., Tenkouano, A. and De Waele, D. (2001). Evaluating host plant reaction of *Musa* germplasm to *Radopholus similis* by inoculation of single primary roots. *Nematropica* 31: 295-299.
- Dubois, T., Gold, C.S., Coyne, D., Paparu, P., Mukwaba, E., Athman, S., Kapindu, S. and Adipala, E. (2004). Merging biotechnology with biological control: banana *Musa* tissue culture plants enhanced by endophytic fungi. *Uganda Journal of Agricultural Sciences* 9: 445-451.
- Gold, C.S. and Dubois, T. (2005). Novel application methods for microbial control products: IITA's research against banana weevil and burrowing nematode. *Biocontrol News and Information* 26: 86N-89N.
- Gowen S., Quénéhervé, P. and Fogain, R. (2005). Nematode parasites of banana, plantains and Abàca. In: Luc, M., Sikora, R.A. and Bridge, J. (Eds). *Plant parasitic nematodes in subtropical and tropical agriculture*. CAB International, Wallingford, UK. pp.611-644.
- Gwinn. K.D. and Bernard, E.C. (1993). Interactions of endophyte-infected grasses with the nematodes *Meloidogyne marylandi* and *Pratylenchus scribneri*. Proceedings of the 2nd International Symposium on *Acremonium/Grass* Interactions. Plenary paper. Palmerston North, New Zealand.
- Hooper, D.J., Hallmann, J. and Subbotin, S.A. (2005). Methods for Extraction, Processing and Detection of Plant and Soil Nematodes In: Luc, M., Sikora, R.A. and Bridge, J. (Eds). *Plant parasitic nematodes in subtropical and tropical agriculture*. CAB International, Wallingford, UK. pp. 53-86.

- Jones, C. S. and Bernard E.C. (1997). Effects of endophyte-infected tall fescue and chitinase on population structure and hatching of *Pratylenchus scribneri*. Abstracts. Society of Nematologists 36th Annual Meeting, Tucson, Arizona, USA. 19-23 July.
- Kaplan, D.T. and Keen, N.T. (1980). Mechanisms conferring plant incompatibility to nematodes. *Revue Nématologie* 3: 123-134.
- Hunt, D.J., Luc, M. and Manzanilla-López, R.H. (2005). Identification, morphology and biology of plant-parasitic nematodes. In: Luc, M., Sikora, R.A. and Bridge, J. (Eds). *Plant parasitic nematodes in subtropical and tropical agriculture*. CAB International, Wallingford, UK. pp. 11-17.
- Loos, C.A. (1962). Studies on the life history and habits of the burrowing nematode, *Radopholus similis*, the cause of blackhead disease of banana. *Proceedings of the helminthological society of Washington* 29: 43-52.
- Luc, M, Sikora, RA, and Bridge, J. (Eds)(2005). *Plant parasitic nematodes in subtropical and tropical agriculture*. CAB International, Wallingford, UK. p871.
- Nelson, P.E., Toussoun, T.A. and Marasas, W.F.O. (1983). *Fusarium* species. An illustrated manual for identification. The Pennsylvania State University Press, University Park. Pennsylvania. USA. p193.
- Niere, B.I. (2001). Significance of non-pathogenic isolates of *Fusarium oxysporum* Schlecht.: Fries for the biological control of the burrowing nematode *Radopholus similis* (Cobb) Thorne on tissue cultured banana. PhD thesis, University of Bonn, Bonn. Germany. p118.
- Oostendorp, M. and Sikora, R.A. (1989). Seed treatment with antagonistic rhizobacteria for the suppression of *Heterodera schachtii* early root infection of sugar beet. *Revue Nématologie* 12: 77-83.
- Oostendorp, M. and Sikora, R.A. (1990). *In-vitro* interrelationships between rhizosphere bacteria and *Heterodera schachtii*. *Revue Nématologie* 13: 269-274.
- Paparu, P. (2005). Colonization, distribution and persistence of fungal endophytes in tissue culture banana. MSc thesis. Makerere University. Kampala, Uganda. p155.
- Perry, R.N. (1996). Chemoreception in plant parasitic nematodes. *Annual Review of Phytopathology* 34: 181-199.
- Pocasangre, L. (2000). Biological enhancement of tissue culture plantlets with endophytic fungi for the control of the burrowing nematodes *Radopholus similis* and the Panama

- disease (*Fusarium oxysporum* f. sp. *cubense*). PhD thesis, University of Bonn, Bonn, Germany. p94.
- Prot, J.C. (1979). Horizontal migrations of second stage juveniles of *Meloidogyne javanica* in sand in concentration gradients of salts and in a moisture gradient. *Revue Nématologie* 2: 17-21.
- Prot, J.C. (1980). Migration of plant parasitic nematodes toward plant roots. *Revue Nématologie* 3: 305-318.
- Prot, J.C. and Van Gundy, S.D. (1980). Effects of soil texture and the clay component on migration of *Meloidogyne incognita* second-stage juveniles. *Journal of Nematology* 13: 213-217.
- Sarah, J.L., Pinochet, J. and Stanton, J. (1996). The burrowing nematode of bananas, *Radopholus similis* Cobb. *Musa* Pest fact Sheet No. 1. INIBAP. Montpellier, France.
- SAS Institute (1989). SAS/STAT User's Guide, Version 6 Fourth Edition Volume 1. SAS Institute, Cary, USA. p943.
- Schuster, R.P., Sikora, R.A. and Amin, N. (1995). Potential of endophytic fungi for the biological control of plant parasitic nematodes. *Mededelingen van de Faculteit Landbouwwetenschappen Rijksuniversiteit Gent* 60: 1047-1052.
- Sikora, R.A., Niere, B. and Kimenju, J. (2003). Endophytic microbial biodiversity and plant nematode management in African agriculture. In: Neuenschwander, P., Borgemeister, C. and Langewald, J. (Eds). *Biological control in IPM systems in Africa*. CAB International, Wallingford, UK. pp.179-192.
- Speijer, P.R. and De Waele, D. (1997). Screening of *Musa* germplasm for resistance and tolerance to nematodes. INIBAP Technical Guidelines 1. INIBAP Montpellier, France. p47.
- Spiegel, Y., Burrows, P.M. and Bar-Eyal, M. (2001). A chemo attractant in onion root exudates recognized by *Ditylenchus dipsaci* in laboratory bioassay. *Phytopathology* 93: 127-132.
- Vuylsteke, D. (1998). Shoot-tip Culture for the Propagation, Conservation, and Distribution of *Musa* Germplasm. International Institute of Tropical Agriculture. Ibadan. Nigeria. p73.
- Zhao, X., Schmitt, M. and Hawes, M.C. (2000). Species-dependent effects of border cell and root tip exudates on nematode behaviour. *Phytopathology* 90: 1239-1245.

Zuckerman, B.M. and Jansson, H.B. (1984). Nematode chemotaxis and possible mechanisms of host-prey recognition. *Annual Review of Phytopathology* 22: 95-113.

Table 1. Nutrient composition of Multifeed Classic (Gouws and Scheepers Ltd., Witfield, South Africa) and Polyfeed fertilizers (Haifa Chemicals, Haifa Bay, Israel) used to enhance root development of tissue culture plants prior to fungal inoculation.

Ingredient	Multifeed Classic (g/kg)	Polyfeed (g/kg)
Nitrogen	190	0.19
Phosphorus	82	0.19
Potassium	158	0.19
Iron	0.75	1
Manganese	0.3	0.5
Boron	1	0.2
Zinc	0.35	0.15
Copper	0.075	0.11
Molybdenum	0.07	0.07
Magnesium	0.9	0

Table 2. Paired *t*-tests for the differences in the total number of *Radopholus similis* present in the sand, roots and in both sand and roots, which migrated towards root segments obtained from endophyte-inoculated or un-inoculated plants paired in a Petri dish.

		Bioassay 1						Bioassay 2					
		Sand		Root		Sand + Root		Sand		Root		Sand + Root	
Treatment pair *	Difference**	T value	Pr> t	T value	Pr> t	T value	Pr> t	T value	Pr> t	T value	Pr> t	T value	Pr> t
C-C	A-B	2.37	0.0986	0.28	0.7999	2.23	0.1119	1.29	0.2861	-0.34	0.7587	1.09	0.3538
C-E1	A-B	0.64	0.5684	-2.71	0.0729	0.45	0.6860	0.41	0.7116	1.36	0.2671	0.65	0.5641
C-E2	A-B	0.63	0.5723	-0.90	0.4339	0.35	0.7492	-0.49	0.6749	-0.8	0.4798	-1.31	0.2809
C-E3	A-B	1.28	0.2918	-0.42	0.7016	0.92	0.4236	1.43	0.2474	-0.72	0.5239	1.26	0.2982
E1-E1	A-B	1.62	0.2033	1.68	0.1920	2.11	0.1253	1.36	0.2666	-0.61	0.5848	1.16	0.3315
E2-E2	A-B	-1.77	0.1749	0.11	0.9173	-2.06	0.1312	-4.01	0.0279	-0.78	0.4917	-3.46	0.0407
E3-E3	A-B	-0.50	0.6512	0.28	0.7987	-0.42	0.7017	-3.35	0.044	0.73	0.5158	-2.97	0.0589

*C= control, E1=endophyte isolate *V5W2*, E2= endophyte isolate *Eny1.31i*. E3=endophyte isolate *Eny7.11o*, root segments from either control or endophyte-infected plants were paired in a Petri dish as indicated above.

**The Petri dishes were divided into two sections, A and B, with the first and second treatment in each treatment pair placed in section A and B respectively (Fig. 2).

Table 3: Paired *t*-tests for the differences between the proportion of nematodes that migrated towards an endophyte-inoculated or un-inoculated plant in the intact plant host preference and attraction bioassays conducted using PVC tube apparatus.

Treatment pair*	Difference**	Bioassay 1		Bioassay 2	
		T Value	P> t	T Value	P> t
C-C	A-B	2.17	0.0958	-0.59	0.5877
C-E1	A-B	0.76	0.4879	-1.40	0.2344
C-E2	A-B	-1.05	0.3517	-1.70	0.1644
C-E3	A-B	0.26	0.8042	0.34	0.7507
E1-E1	A-B	-0.09	0.9305	0.91	0.4321
E2-E2	A-B	-2.49	0.0673	-0.37	0.7234
E3-E3	A-B	4.54	0.0105	2.79	0.0493

*C= control, E1= endophyte isolate *V5W2*, E2= endophyte isolate *Eny1.31i*. E3= endophyte isolate *Eny7.11o*.

**Control and endophyte-infected plants were paired in a polyvinyl chloride (PVC) tube divided into 7 sections (Fig. 3), with the first and second treatment in each treatment pair placed on section 1 and 7, respectively. Nematodes were inoculated at the middle section (4) of the tube equidistant from the two plants. A and B represents sections on either side of the nematode inoculation point and correspond to the plant (treatment) on that side of the inoculation point.

Table 4. Average number of *Radopholus similis* in 5 g banana root samples of endophyte-inoculated and un-inoculated plants 3, 6, 10 and 14 days after nematode inoculation in in vivo root penetration experiments in the screen house.

Treatment	Days after nematode inoculation				<i>P</i> -Value ²
	3	6	10	14	
Experiment 1					
Control	13.5 ± 0.5	19.2 ± 0.6	15.6 ± 1.9	14.8 ± 5.7	0.1028
<i>V5W2</i>	9.2 ± 4.6	6.6 ± 2.1	13.6 ± 0.6	8.3 ± 5.9	0.7772
<i>Enyl.3li</i>	5.8 ± 1.1	8.8 ± 2.8	7.6 ± 3.4	13.1 ± 3.7	0.8447
<i>Eny7.1lo</i>	6.1 ± 2.4	4.8 ± 1.4	7.6 ± 3.4	13.1 ± 3.7	0.3514
<i>P</i> -value ¹	0.6771	0.6340	0.1301	0.7300	
Experiment 2					
Control	4.1 ± 1.1	5.2 ± 2.2	3.4 ± 1.3	1.8 ± 0.3	0.5584
<i>V5W2</i>	1.7 ± 0.4	4.2 ± 1.1	6.0 ± 1.6	3.9 ± 0.8	0.2099
<i>Enyl.3li</i>	1.0 ± 0.5	10.9 ± 9.5	4.0 ± 0.6	3.8 ± 1.1	0.5859
<i>Eny7.1lo</i>	2.8 ± 0.9	1.5 ± 0.4	5.9 ± 3.3	3.3 ± 0.8	0.3147
<i>P</i> -value ¹	0.1179	0.7025	0.6780	0.1909	
Experiment 3					
Control	6.0 ± 1.4	4.2 ± 1.3	5.5 ± 1.4	13.7 ± 5.4	0.1531
<i>V5W2</i>	2.8 ± 0.6	5.5 ± 1.4	6.2 ± 2.9	26.5 ± 11.9	0.0693
<i>Enyl.3li</i>	5.3 ± 3.1	3.3 ± 0.5	5.5 ± 1.7	4.6 ± 1.8	0.6586
<i>Eny7.1lo</i>	12.1 ± 6.7	2.2 ± 0.4	4.5 ± 2.4	4.8 ± 0.6	0.4473
<i>P</i> -value ¹	0.5981	0.2858	0.7552	0.0643	

P-Value¹ is the *P*-value for treatments along columns in each experiment. *P*-Value² is the *P*-value for days after inoculation along rows within each treatment.

Table 5. Effect of endophyte treatment of tissue culture banana plants cv. Enyeru (*Musa* spp. AAA-EA) with fungal isolates *V5W2*, *Eny1.3li* and *Eny7.1lo* on the reproduction of *Radopholus similis* 25, 50 and 75 days after inoculation of individual primary roots with 50 *Radopholus similis* females.

Treatment	Females			Juveniles			Males			Total*		
	Days after nematode inoculation			Days after nematode inoculation			Days after nematode inoculation			Days after nematode inoculation		
	25	50	75	25	50	75	25	50	75	25	50	75
Experiment 1												
Control	1.1 ±0.3 ^a	115.4±44.7 ^a	270.0±55.1 ^a	1.0±0.3 ^a	143.3±53.7 ^a	581.8±110.9 ^a	0.1 ±0.1 ^a	80.4±33.7 ^a	268.5±47.8 ^a	2.0 ±0.6 ^b	339.2 ±130.6 ^a	1120.6 ±196.7 ^a
<i>Eny1.3li</i>	7.5±3.3 ^a	33.4 ±11.3 ^a	94.5±47.1 ^b	4.3±1.9 ^a	70.6±28.7 ^a	190.5±98.7 ^b	2.1 ±0.8 ^a	36.0±13.2 ^a	98.5±56.5 ^b	12.8 ±5.6 ^{ab}	140.0 ±49.7 ^a	383.5 ±194.1 ^b
<i>Eny7.1lo</i>	4.2±2.1 ^a	68.6±32.3 ^a	87.9±47.1 ^b	1.1±0.5 ^a	69.2±39.1 ^a	130.6±63.8 ^b	2.1 ±1.6 ^a	57.2 ±31.2 ^a	43.8±18.2 ^b	5.5 ±3.0 ^{ab}	195.0 ±101.8 ^a	262.9 ±127.5 ^b
<i>V5W2</i>	12.5±3.9 ^a	88.8±36.2 ^a	35.5±16.8 ^b	6.3±2.3 ^a	116.6±49.9 ^a	53.5±18.8 ^b	5.5 ±1.9 ^a	114.7±47.6 ^a	19.1±6.7 ^b	24.5 ±7.9 ^a	320.2 ±128.2 ^a	109.0 ±41.9 ^b
<i>P</i> -value	0.0756	0.7151	0.0034	0.0756	0.8610	0.0003	0.0662	0.7920	0.0001	0.0226	0.8561	0.0003
Experiment 2												
Control	19.3±1.6 ^a	228.6±73.4 ^a	443.0±25.6 ^a	33.0±1.9 ^a	453.8±165.6 ^a	381.1±67.4 ^a	13.0±1.1 ^a	159.8±56.4 ^a	255.8±132.2 ^a	65.3±2.9 ^a	842.2±258.4 ^a	1080.0±174.1 ^a
<i>Eny1.3li</i>	9.2±4.6 ^a	84.6±38.3 ^a	536.9±247.3 ^a	12.8±6.5 ^a	97.3±47.1 ^a	408.2±199.1 ^a	7.0±4.0 ^a	44.1±21.4 ^a	319.7±189.3 ^a	29.1±15.2 ^a	226.1±104.3 ^a	1265.0±627.5 ^a
<i>Eny7.1lo</i>	18.1±5.1 ^a	195.7±56.7 ^a	887.5±350.2 ^a	26.8±7.6 ^a	343.1±110.4 ^a	509.3±140.2 ^a	14.4±5.5 ^a	135.5±39.6 ^a	344.5±100.6 ^a	59.3±16.9 ^a	674.3±202.5 ^a	1741.4±544.4 ^a
<i>V5W2</i>	17.2±5.4 ^a	222.5±68.6 ^a	436.2±188.9 ^a	28.8±8.8 ^a	256.8±88.3 ^a	278.1±84.8 ^a	13.8±5.1 ^a	102.6±37.4 ^a	221.3±70.6 ^a	59.8±17.3 ^a	582.1±181.8 ^a	935.7±305.3 ^a
<i>P</i> -value	0.7740	0.6775	0.6416	0.7719	0.1001	0.6665	0.0814	0.8551	0.7416	0.8745	0.3213	0.7778

*Total *R. similis* density (females + males + juveniles). In columns within an experiment, means followed by the same letter (superscript) are not different at $P < 0.05$ according to Tukey's studentized range test. Values represent the mean ± S.E., n= 15.

Table 6. Percentage root necrosis, reproduction rates (Pf/Pi) of *Radopholus similis* and endophytic colonization in roots of tissue culture banana plants cv. Enyeru (*Musa* spp. AAA-EA) 25, 50 and 75 days after inoculation of individual primary roots with 50 *Radopholus similis* females.

Treatment	Root necrosis (%)			Reproduction ratio (Pf/Pi)			Root colonization (%)		
	Days after nematode inoculation			Days after nematode inoculation			Days after nematode inoculation		
	25	50	75	25	50	75	25	50	75
Experiment 1									
Control	26.4 ±11.5 ^a	8.4 ±2.9 ^b	11.7 ±2.5 ^a	0.1 ±0.0 ^b	6.7 ±2.6 ^a	22.4 ±3.9 ^a	0.0 ±0.0 ^a	26.8 ±12.1 ^a	0.0 ±0.0 ^a
<i>Eny1.3li</i>	22.7 ±6.4 ^a	18.4 ±1.0 ^a	12.9 ±1.7 ^a	0.2 ±0.1 ^{ab}	2.8 ±0.9 ^a	7.6 ±3.8 ^b	13.8 ±7.3 ^a	39.5 ±6.3 ^a	50.0 ±41.6 ^a
<i>Eny7.1lo</i>	32.5 ±9.9 ^a	13.2 ±3.1 ^{ab}	5.7 ±1.5 ^a	0.1 ±0.1 ^{ab}	3.9 ±2.0 ^a	5.2 ±2.5 ^b	61.1 ±26.4 ^a	21.6 ±7.7 ^a	0.0 ±0.0 ^a
<i>V5W2</i>	20.5 ±7.1 ^a	19.7 ±0.1 ^a	12.1 ±2.6 ^a	0.4 ±0.1 ^a	6.4 ±2.5 ^a	2.1 ±0.8 ^b	16.6 ±8.3 ^a	38.8 ±8.0 ^a	33.3 ±14.2 ^a
<i>P</i> -value	0.7525	0.0047	0.0630	0.0218	0.8583	0.0004	0.1257	0.5924	0.1796
Experiment 2									
Control	20.8 ±5.8 ^a	100.0 ±0.0 ^a	97.5 ±1.7 ^a	1.3 ±0.1 ^a	16.8 ±5.1 ^a	21.6 ±3.4 ^a	0.0 ±0.0 ^b	12.5 ±7.2 ^a	0.0 ±0.0 ^b
<i>Eny1.3li</i>	15.8 ±7.6 ^a	81.6 ±9.5 ^a	98.3 ±1.6 ^a	0.5 ±0.3 ^a	4.5 ±2.1 ^a	25.3 ±12.5 ^a	45.2 ±5.7 ^a	48.2 ±12.0 ^a	43.7 ±21.3 ^a
<i>Eny7.1lo</i>	29.1 ±7.0 ^a	95.0 ±1.8 ^a	95.0 ±3.1 ^a	1.1 ±0.3 ^a	13.4 ±4.1 ^a	34.8 ±10.8 ^a	52.1 ±10.4 ^a	36.4 ±9.6 ^a	66.6 ±5.4 ^a
<i>V5W2</i>	31.6 ±8.7 ^a	76.1 ±10.5 ^a	91.1 ±5.4 ^a	1.1 ±0.3 ^a	11.6 ±3.6 ^a	18.7 ±6.1 ^a	53.5 ±9.7 ^a	46.1 ±7.5 ^a	53.3 ±6.2 ^a
<i>P</i> -value	0.4214	0.1392	0.2826	0.0895	0.7271	0.4813	0.0002	0.5616	0.0004

In columns within an experiment, means followed by the same letter are not significantly different at $P < 0.05$ according to Tukey's studentized range test. Values represent the mean ± S.E., n= 15.

Figure 1. Banana tissue culture plants growing in an aquaculture system in 250-ml plastic pots filled with nutrient solution.



Figure 2. Experimental set up used to test for host preference and attraction of *Radopholus similis* to either root segments from endophyte-inoculated or un-inoculated banana plants by means of the detached root bioassay (figure not drawn to scale).

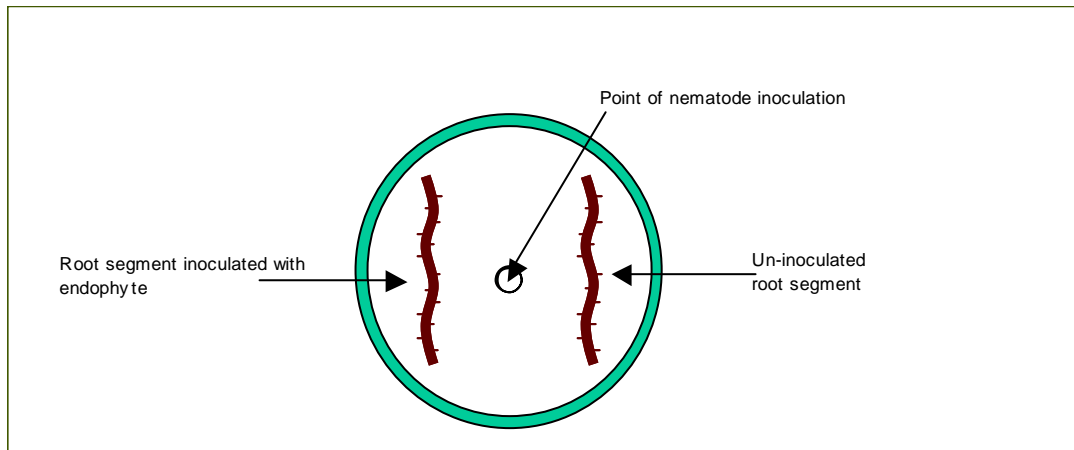


Figure 3. The polyvinyl chloride (PVC) tube apparatus used for *Radopholus similis* host preference and attraction bioassays involving intact endophyte-inoculated and un-inoculated (control) plants (A), and a schematic presentation of the PVC apparatus (B) (figure not drawn to scale).

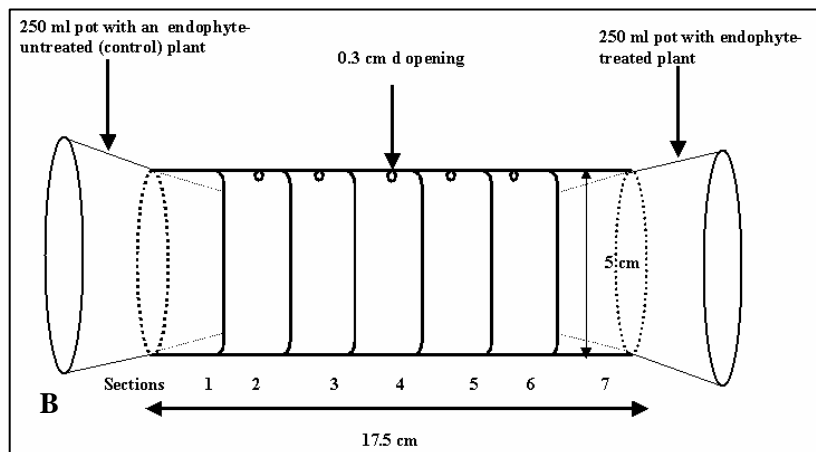


Figure 4. Experimental set up used to assess penetration of endophyte-inoculated and un-inoculated banana roots by *Radopholus similis* in vitro. (A), comprising a rectangular plastic container in which the plants were placed with three roots from each plant placed in Petri dishes. Nematode inoculation was done directly on the root sections inside the Petri dishes and extraction performed 24 hrs later. (B) represents a schematic presentation of the experimental set up (figure not drawn to scale).

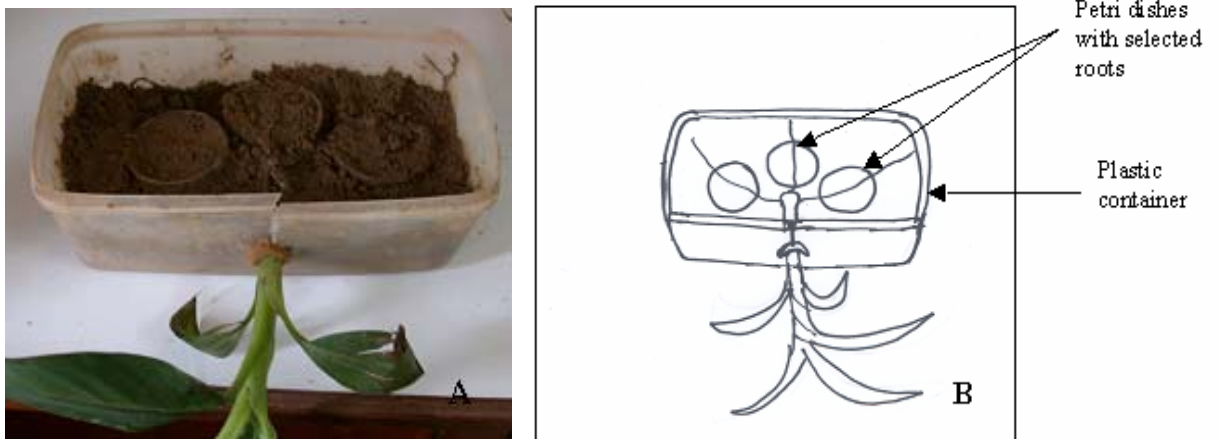
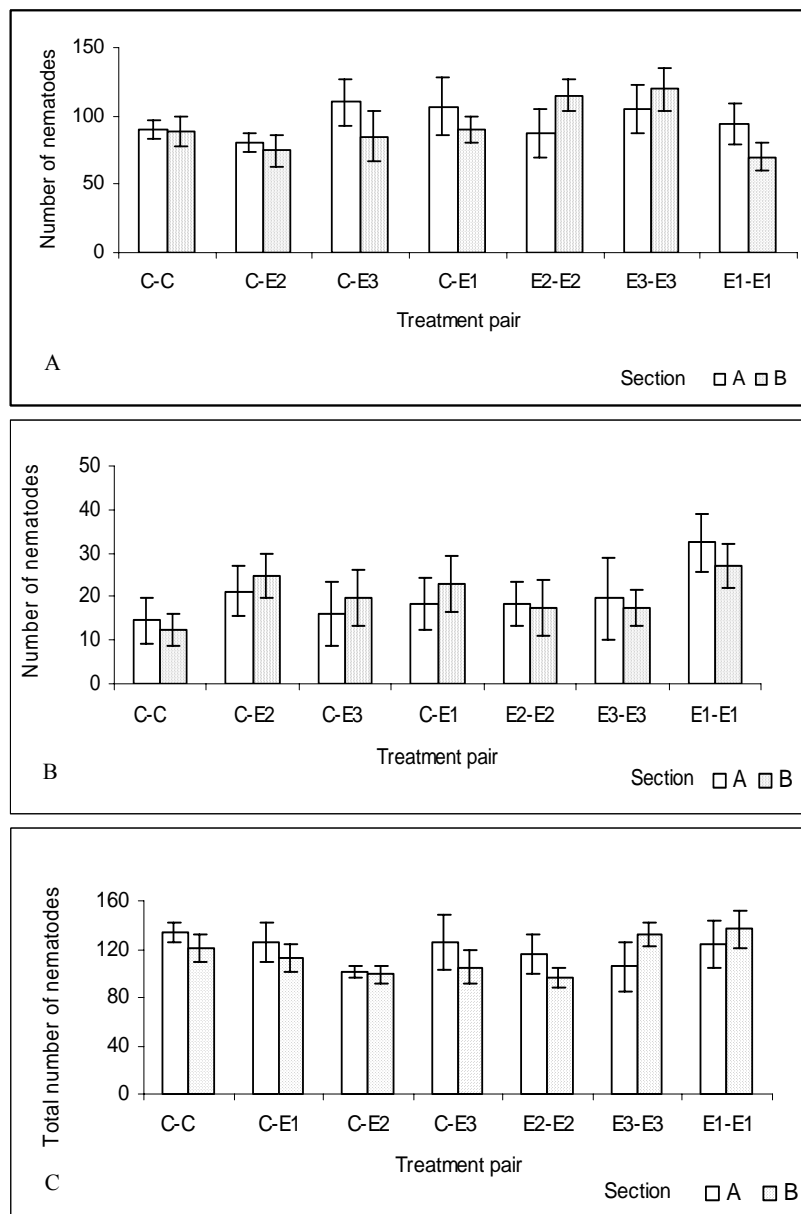


Figure 5. Experimental set up used to assess *Radopholus similis* reproduction in individual roots (A) and an excavated pot with the nematode inoculated root segment inside the plastic pot flanked by two root pieces (B).

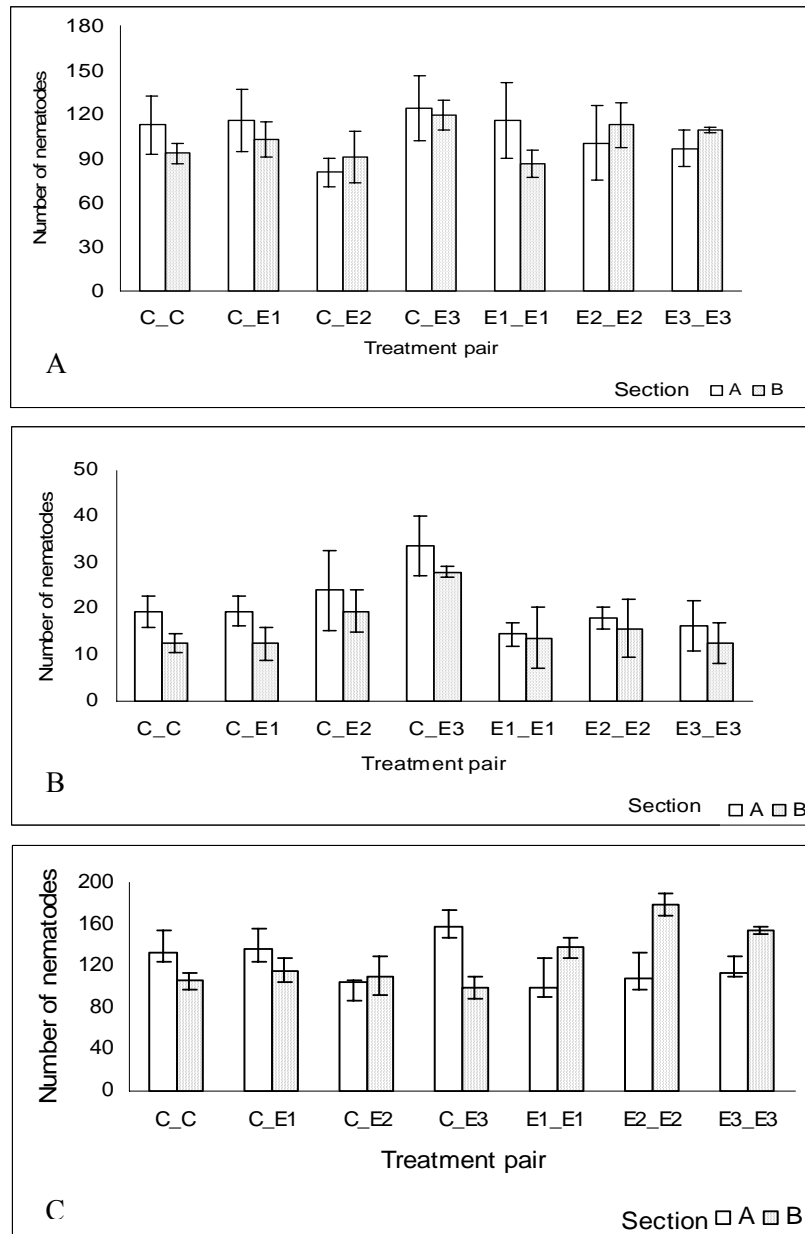


Figure 6. Average number of *Radopholus similis* that migrated towards root segments excised from endophyte-inoculated or un-inoculated banana roots in the detached root bioassay (Bioassay 1). Total nematodes recovered from the sand (A), number from the root segments (B) and the total nematodes from both the sand and root segment (C) in opposite sides of a Petri dish containing each respective treatment pair.



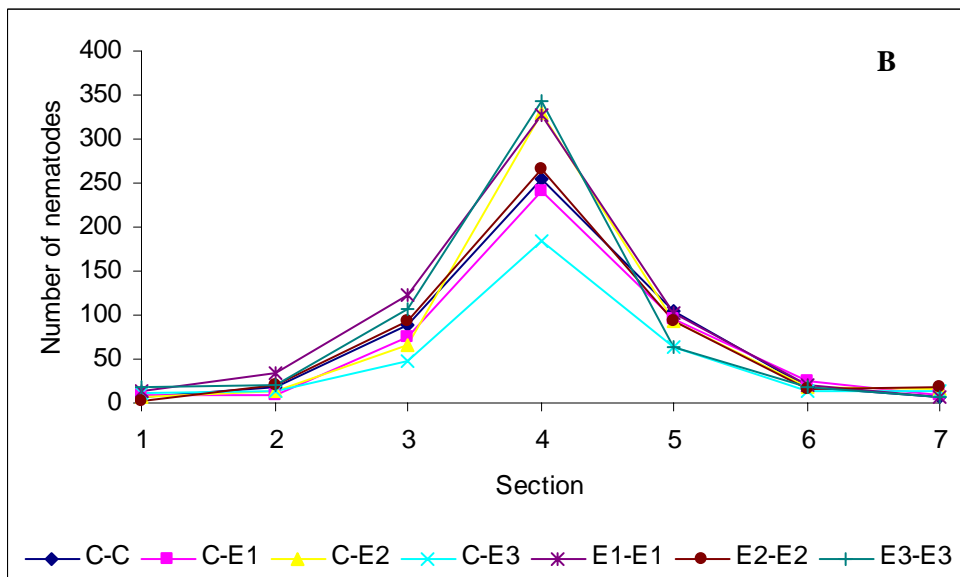
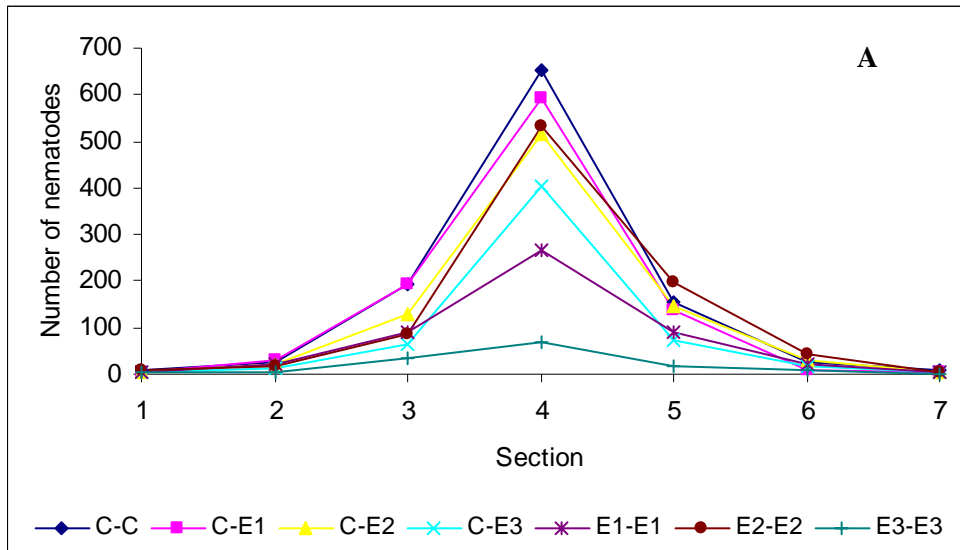
C=control, E1=endophyte isolate *V5W2*, E2= endophyte isolate *Enyl.31i*, E3= endophyte isolate *Eny7.11o*. Root segments from either endophyte-inoculated or un-inoculated plants were paired in 90-mm-diameter Petri dishes. The first treatment in each treatment pair was placed in section A and the second in section B. Nematodes were inoculated at the middle of the Petri dish equidistant from the two root segments. Nematode extraction was carried out 24 hrs later from both sand and the root segment in both sections of the Petri dish. Error bars represent standard errors of the mean, n=4

Figure 7: Average number of *Radopholus similis* that migrated towards root segments excised from endophyte-inoculated or un-inoculated banana roots in the detached root bioassay (Bioassay 2). Total nematodes recovered from the sand (A), number from the root segments (B) and the total nematodes from both the sand and root segment (C) in opposite sides of a Petri dish containing each respective treatment pair.



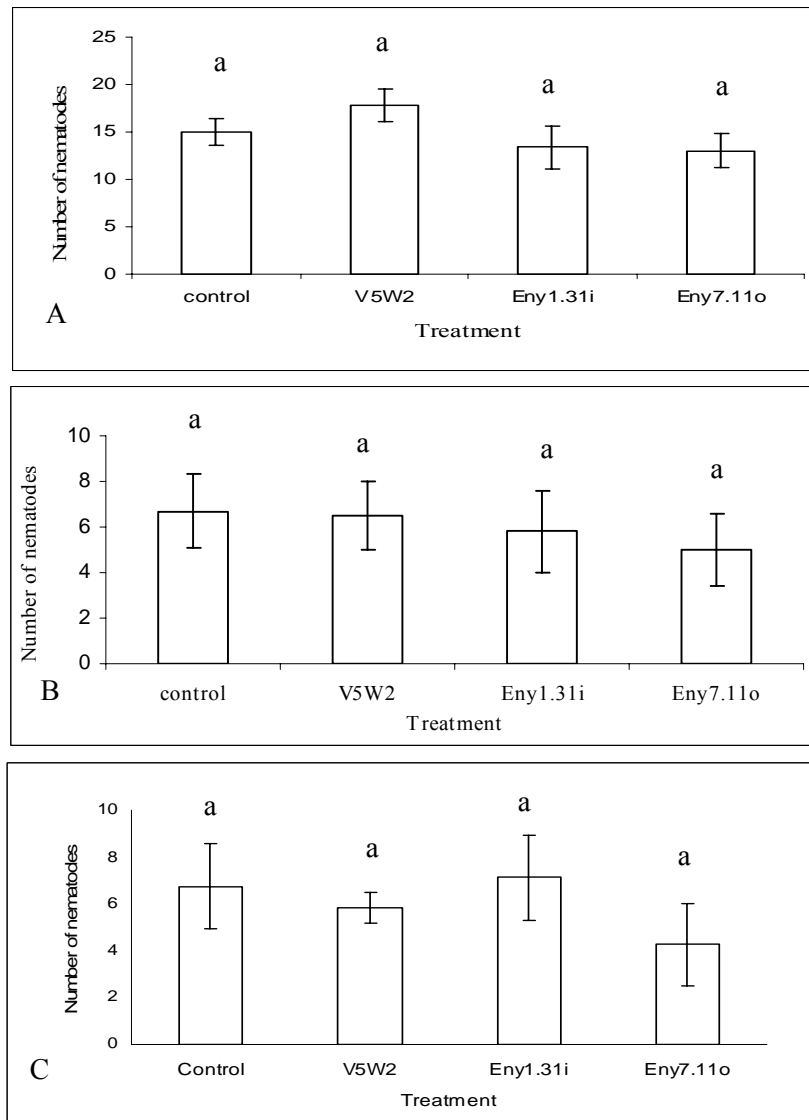
C=control, E1=endophyte isolate *V5W2*, E2= endophyte isolate *Eny1.31i*, E3= endophyte isolate *Eny7.11o*. Root segments from either endophyte-inoculated or un-inoculated plants were paired in 90-mm-diameter Petri dishes. The first treatment in each treatment pair was placed in section A and the second in section B. Nematodes were inoculated at the middle of the Petri dish equidistant from the two root segments. Nematode extraction was carried out 24 hrs later from both sand and the root segment in both sections of the Petri dish. Error bars represent standard errors of the mean, n=4

Figure 8: Distribution of nematodes in the polyvinyl chloride (PVC) sections showing migration of nematodes towards endophyte-inoculated and un-inoculated banana plants paired in a PVC tube apparatus divided into seven sections (A, bioassay 1; B, bioassay 2). *Radopholus similis* (2000 mixed stages) were introduced in the middle section of the PVC apparatus (section 4) equal distances from both plants placed in sections 1 and 7, which contained either an endophyte-inoculated or un-inoculated plant.



C=control, E1= endophyte isolate *V5W2*, E2= endophyte isolate *Eny1.31i*, E3= endophyte isolate *Eny7.11o*.

Figure 9. Number of nematodes present in 8-cm-long root segments of endophyte-inoculated and un-inoculated banana plants 24 hrs after direct inoculation of root segments with 50 *Radopholus similis* females in the *in vitro* root penetration experiments. A, B and C are repeat experiments.



Control plants were not treated with any fungal isolate; endophyte-inoculated plants were treated with any of the three endophyte isolates viz. *V5W2*, *Eny1.31i* and *Eny7.11o*. Error bars represent standard errors of the mean, $n=15$. Bars with the same letters are not significantly different at $P=0.05$ according to Tukey's studentized range test.

Chapter 5

Mechanisms of action of endophytic *Fusarium oxysporum* against *Radopholus similis* in banana plants

Abstract

The mechanisms through which endophytic *Fusarium oxysporum* inhibits *Radopholus similis* damage to banana roots were studied by analyzing production of extracellular enzymes by the fungus, and induction of resistance mechanisms in the plant. Nine isolates of *F. oxysporum* produced proteases on gelatine-amended medium but none showed chitinase or lipase activity on chitin agar and medium amended with Tween 20, respectively. In split-root experiments, *R. similis* nematode numbers were reduced when the banana roots were treated with the endophytic *F. oxysporum* isolates *V5W2*, *Eny1.31i* and *Eny7.11o*. Histological analysis of banana roots and rhizomes showed higher levels of phenols in endophyte-treated (isolate *V5W2*) than in untreated plants. Cell wall-bound phenolics were more abundant in rhizomes than in the roots, and in the central cylinder of the rhizome than in the cortex regions. HPLC analysis did not show any significant differences between metabolite profiles of endophyte-treated and untreated plants. However, four unidentified compounds were found in both endophyte-treated and untreated plant extracts. Although not significantly different, the quantities of unknown compound 1 and 3 with retention times of 2.39 and 33.3 min, respectively, were found only in the endophyte-treated compared to the untreated plants. Known phenolic compounds identified in equal quantities in both endophyte-treated and untreated plants were 3, 4-dihydroxybenzoic, hydroxybenzoic, ferulic, syringic and vanillic acids. *p*-Coumaric acid was detected in rhizomes of plants treated with *V5W2* and *R. similis*. The results of the current study indicate that the systemic production of phenolic compounds in the host plant may constitute one of the main mechanisms through which endophytic *F. oxysporum* suppresses *R. similis* in banana plants.

Introduction

The banana burrowing nematode, *Radopholus similis* (Thorne) Cobb is the most economically important nematode species-affecting banana in Uganda and the world (Sarah, 1989; Sarah *et al.*, 1996; Speijer *et al.*, 1999; Gowen *et al.*, 2005). In Uganda, nematode-infected banana plants can have yield losses of between 30 and 50% (Speijer *et al.*, 1999; Speijer and Kajumba, 2000). The nematode-induced losses are a result of reduction in the number of standing leaves, flower production, bunch weight, and an increase in the number of dead roots, root necrosis, plant toppling, and the time between successive harvests (Sarah *et al.*, 1996; Speijer *et al.*, 1999; Speijer and Kajumba, 2000; Talwana *et al.*, 2003).

Management of *R. similis* has mainly relied on cultural practices such as the use of clean planting material obtained through paring and hot-water treatment of nematode infected plants (Speijer *et al.*, 1995; Gold *et al.*, 1998), planting of tissue culture plants (Mateille *et al.*, 1994; Sarah, 2000), mulching (McIntyre *et al.*, 2000; Talwana *et al.*, 2003) and use of legume intercrops (McIntyre *et al.*, 2001). Nematode resistant banana cultivars have also been identified and may be used in breeding programmes (Fogain and Gowen, 1997; Sarah *et al.*, 1997; Collingborn *et al.*, 2000). However, none of these methods offer permanent nematode control. An integrated nematode management approach involving a combination of several complementary methods would be best suited for control of *R. similis* in banana.

Biological control of *R. similis* using endophytic *Fusarium oxysporum* Schlecht.: Fries. is a promising management option that can be used to complement other nematode management strategies. Endophytic *F. oxysporum* reduced *R. similis* densities and damage in earlier studies (Chapter 3; Pocasangre, 2000; Niere, 2001). They suppress the nematodes in a number of ways by utilizing mechanisms that may act alone or in combination. One of the main mechanisms for *in vitro* inhibition of nematodes is the production of antagonistic compounds that cause nematode paralysis and mortality (Chapter 2; Hallman and Sikora 1994a,b; Niere, 2001; Dubois *et al.*, 2004). Treatment of tissue culture banana plants with endophytes did not influence the nematode host preferences and root penetration by *R. similis*, but had an effect on nematode reproduction (Chapter 4). The reduction in nematode reproduction may be due to induced resistance a mechanism that has previously been reported as responsible for suppression of nematodes in plants (Sikora *et al.*, 2003). Non-pathogenic *F. oxysporum* also

reduced the severity of *Fusarium* wilt diseases through induced resistance in tomato (*Lycopersicon esculentum* L.) (Fuchs *et al.*, 1997), cucumber (*Cucumis sativus* L.) (Mandeel and Baker, 1991), chickpea (*Cicer arietinum* L.) (Hervás *et al.*, 1995) and banana (*Musa* spp.) (Nel *et al.*, 2006). Another mechanism that may play a role in nematode control by endophytes is the direct parasitism of nematodes by the fungi.

Fungal endophytes may induce plant resistance responses by means of structural/morphological and physiological/biochemical changes in the plant. Biochemical responses include the synthesis of defence-related chemicals, such as phenolic compounds, against pest and pathogens (Ramamoorthy *et al.*, 2001). Phenolic compounds may occur as constitutive molecules present in healthy plants or as substances synthesized by plants in response to bacterial or fungal infection (Mansfield, 1983), and are well recognized as plant resistance factors against nematodes (Giebel, 1974; 1982; Bajaj *et al.*, 1983; Peng and Moens, 2004; Zinov'eva *et al.*, 2004; Pegard *et al.*, 2005). Banana cultivars resistant to *R. similis* were reported to contain higher amounts of constitutive phenolics compared to susceptible cultivars (Fogain and Gowen, 1996; Valette *et al.*, 1998; Collingborn *et al.*, 2000; Dochez, 2004). Schulz *et al.* (1999) also demonstrated that higher amounts of phenolic metabolites were produced in barley (*Hordeum vulgare* L.) inoculated with an endophytic *Fusarium* sp.

Direct parasitism is accomplished through the hydrolytic activity of extracellular enzymes produced by the nematode-antagonistic fungi (Stirling, 1991). For direct parasitism of nematodes to occur, the fungus must penetrate the nematode cuticle, a rigid and flexible exoskeleton composed mainly of proteins (Inglis, 1983). The nematode egg shell consists mainly of a chitinous and lipid layer (Perry and Trett, 1986; Bird and Bird, 1991). Production of extracellular enzymes by nematode-parasitic fungi has been demonstrated for nematophagous fungi like *Arthrobotryis oligospora* Fresenius (Minglian *et al.*, 2004) and *Verticillium chlamydosporium* Goddard (Segers *et al.*, 1994; Tikhonov *et al.*, 2002).

Understanding the mechanism(s) of action involved in the biological control of *R. similis* in banana by endophytic *F. oxysporum* is important for successful application in the field. The objectives of this study were therefore, to (i) determine the production of extracellular enzymes such as chitinase, lipase and protease by nine endophytic *F. oxysporum* isolates on solid medium, (ii) assess induction of systemic resistance in banana plants against *R. similis* in

split root experiments by three endophytic *F. oxysporum* isolates and (iii) assess the accumulation of phenolic compounds in endophyte-treated banana plants as an indicator of induced resistance through histological and histochemical analysis.

Material and methods

Site description

All experiments were carried out at the International Institute of Tropical Agriculture (IITA) Research Station in Namulonge-Uganda, approximately 30 km Northeast of Kampala, Uganda. The site is situated at 1150 m above sea level, 32° 34'N latitude, with a mean annual rainfall of 1255 mm and an average temperature of 22°C.

Fungal isolates, nematode cultures and banana plants

The endophytic *F. oxysporum* isolates used in this study were previously isolated from roots and rhizomes of apparently healthy banana plants in Uganda (Schuster *et al.*, 1995), and are preserved in soil tubes at IITA. Pure *R. similis* inoculum was obtained from carrot disc cultures maintained at IITA (Chapter 1; Speijer and De Waele, 1997). Tissue culture banana plants of the local East African highland banana *cv.* 'Enyeru' (*Musa* spp. AAA-EA) were propagated from sword suckers (Vuylsteke, 1998). The plants were grown in a nutrient solution containing 1 g / L of Poly-Feed (Haifa Chemicals, Haifa Bay, Israel) and acclimatised in a humidity chamber (Chapter 3) for 1 month with weekly renewal of the nutrient solution.

Production of extra cellular enzymes on solid medium

Nine *F. oxysporum* isolates (*V5W2*, *Eny1.31i*, *Eny7.11o*, *V4W5*, *V2W2*, *V1W7*, *Emb2.4o*, *III4W1* and *III3W3*) were assayed for the production of extra cellular enzymes on solid medium amended with enzyme-specific substrates. Fungal isolates were pre-grown on synthetic nutrient agar (SNA) (1 g KH₂PO₄, 1 g KNO₃, 0.5 g MgSO₄7H₂O, 0.5 g KCl, 0.2 g glucose, 0.2 g sucrose, 0.6 ml NaOH (1 M) and 13.2 g agar/L distilled water) in 65-mm-

diameter Petri dishes under laboratory conditions (room temperature of *ca.* 25°C and a photoperiod of 12 hrs light and 12 hrs darkness) for 1 week. The SNA medium was supplemented with 10 mg chlortetracycline, 100 mg penicillin G and 50 mg streptomycin-sulphate/L to prevent bacterial contamination.

Chitinase activity of the *F. oxysporum* isolates was assessed using 0.4% chitin agar (4 g chitin powder (Sigma-Aldrich St. Louis MO, USA), 0.7 g K₂HPO₄, 0.3 g KH₂PO₄, 0.5 g MgSO₄.5H₂O, 0.01 g FeSO₄.7H₂O, 0.001g ZnSO₄, 0.001g MnCl₂ and 20 g agar / L distilled water) (Hsu & Lockwood, 1975). One-week-old fungal isolates growing on SNA were point inoculated in the middle of Petri dishes containing chitin agar. A 3-mm-diameter cork borer was used to remove a disc of agar from the middle of the chitin agar plates and the hole replaced with a similar sized mycelial agar disc of the fungal cultures. To test for the production of lipases, fungal isolates from 1-week-old cultures on SNA were point inoculated on medium containing sorbitan monolaurate (Tween 20, Sigma, MO, USA) comprising of 10 ml Tween 20 and 20 g agar/L of distilled water. For assessment of protease activity, fungal isolates were point inoculated on gelatine medium comprising of 26.6 g gelatine (Sigma) and 14 g agar / L distilled water.

Ten Petri dishes were used for each of the isolates and enzymes; five with medium amended with the substrate and five without the substrate (controls). The medium in the control plates comprised of each of the above-mentioned ingredients except the enzyme-specific substrate. All petri dishes were incubated for 1 week under laboratory conditions. Cultures were examined on a daily basis for the presence of a clear zone (halo) around the fungal colony. The diameters of the clear zone and of fungal colonies were measured, and the difference between the areas of the clear zone and the fungal colony calculated to provide an estimate of the levels of enzyme production by the different isolates (Alves *et al.*, 2002).

Split-root experiments for assessing induced resistance

Split-root experiments were conducted in the screen house to determine whether three *F. oxysporum* isolates (*V5W2*, *Eny1.31i* and *Eny7.11o*) induced systemic resistance in banana roots against *R. similis*. One-month-old tissue culture banana plants cv. Enyeru (*Musa* spp. AAA-EA) growing in nutrient solution in the humidity chamber (Chapter 4) were removed

from their pots and transplanted into 3-L plastic bags containing steam-sterilized loamy forest soil, and grown for another month. The 2-months-old the banana plants were then gently removed from their bags and each root system separated into two equal halves. Each half was planted separately into adjacent 300-ml pots, filled with sterile loamy forest soil (Fig. 1). The paired pots were marked A (inducer half) and B (responder half). The unsplit upper portion of the root system and rhizome were wrapped in moistened cotton wool to prevent dehydration, and then enclosed in an inverted pot from which the bottom part has been removed (Ogallo and McClure, 1996). The cotton wool was kept moist by spraying with tap water using a household sprayer.

Inoculation of plants with the endophytes started 1 week after replanting of the plants into the split-root systems. Fungal spore suspensions were prepared in half strength potato dextrose broth (PDB) (Sigma-Aldrich) obtained by dissolving 12 g of PDB in 1 L of distilled water. One hundred-ml aliquots of PDB were dispensed into 250-ml Erlenmeyer flasks and sterilized. After cooling, flasks were inoculated with 4 to 5 disks of agar of each fungal isolate. Un-inoculated PDB was used as the control treatment. Duplicate flasks were prepared for each fungal isolate and the control. Inoculated flasks were incubated in the laboratory for 7 days to allow for fungal growth and sporulation. Fungal spore suspensions were filtered through a 1-mm-diameter sieve to remove mycelial fragments. The spore suspensions were then adjusted to provide a final spore count of 1.5×10^6 spores/ml.

One week after transplanting, 1 ml of the spore suspensions was applied to the inducer half of the split root system. The soil around the roots was removed and the spore suspensions applied directly to the exposed roots. One week later, a 2-ml nematode inoculum containing 500 mixed stages of *R. similis* was added to the responder half of the split-root system so that both the fungal isolates and nematodes were spatially separated in adjacent pots on the same plant (Fig. 1). To inoculate plants with nematodes, soil was removed from around the roots and the nematode suspension pipetted directly onto the roots. The roots were then covered with soil. The experiment was repeated twice. The number of replications per treatment was 7, 10 and 14 in experiments 1, 2 and 3, respectively. Plants were arranged in the screen house in a completely randomized design (CRD).

One month after nematode inoculation the plants were harvested, and the nematode numbers and the extent of root necrosis determined. Root necrosis was determined from five randomly selected roots of each plant. The roots were split longitudinally and scored for percentage necrosis (Chapter 3; Speijer and De Waele 1997). The roots used for necrosis assessment were subsequently cut into smaller pieces, weighed and then macerated in a Waring blender (Waring, Connecticut, USA) at low speed for 15 s. Nematode extraction was carried out overnight according to a modified Baermann method (Chapter 3; Hooper *et al.*, 2005). To check for cross-contamination and confirm spatial separation of the endophytes from the nematodes, nematode extraction and fungal reisolation was conducted on roots from both pots A and B.

To determine colonization of plant roots by the fungal isolates, three healthy primary roots were randomly selected from each pot at harvest and surface sterilized in 75% ethanol for 1 min, followed by sterilization in 2% NaOCl for 30 s. Root pieces were blotted dry on sterile tissue paper and cut into *ca.* 0.25-cm-long segments. Six sterilized segments per root were randomly selected and placed on SNA in 65-mm-diameter Petri dishes. The plates were incubated in the laboratory for 7 days under laboratory conditions. *Fusarium oxysporum* colonies growing from the root pieces were identified as described in Chapter 3 under a light microscope (magnification x 400) (Nelson *et al.*, 1983). The number of root pieces with *F. oxysporum* colonies were recorded and the percentage recovery of the fungus calculated.

Analysis of phenolic compounds in endophyte-treated plants

The amount of phenolic compounds in rhizome and root tissues was studied as an indication of induced resistance in endophyte-treated tissue culture banana plants. Fungal inoculum was produced on sterile millet seed (Strauss and Labuschagne, 1995). Two hundred g of millet seed in 500-ml Erlenmeyer flasks were soaked in distilled water overnight and autoclaved twice (121°C for 15 min) on successive days. The flasks were subsequently inoculated with five mycelial disks of 1-week-old cultures of isolate V5W2 grown on SNA. The flasks were then incubated at room temperature at *ca.* 25°C in the laboratory for 3 weeks. Flasks were shaken daily to disperse the inoculum throughout the seeds. Uninoculated millet seed was included as the control treatment.

Plants were removed from the humidity chamber and their roots cut back to *ca.* 10 cm long. The plants were then potted in steam-sterilized loamy forest soil in 300-ml plastic pots and placed on a table in the screen house. The experiment included five treatments: a positive control that was sprayed until run-off with 50 mM di-hydrogen potassium phosphate (KH₂PO₄), a known chemical inducer of resistance in plants (Manandhar *et al.*, 1998); a negative control comprising plants treated with sterile millet seed inoculum (10% w/v); plants treated with isolate *V5W2*-colonized millet seed inoculum only (10% w/v); plants treated with *R. similis* only and plants treated with both *V5W2*-colonized millet seed inoculum (10% w/v) and *R. similis*. Treatments with *R. similis* were inoculated with a 2-ml suspension of 500 mixed stages of *R. similis*. The endophyte was inoculated at the beginning of the experiment and the nematodes at 1 week after endophyte inoculation.

Each treatment consisted of 25 1-month-old plants, which were arranged in a completely randomized design (CRD). In a time course study, five plants from each treatment were harvested at 0, 1, 2, 3 and 4 weeks after endophyte inoculation for analysis of total phenolic compounds. The roots and rhizomes of each plant sampled were washed free of soil under running tap water. From each plant, three primary roots were selected and a 1-cm piece cut from the basal part of the root (part of root proximal to the rhizome). The rhizome was split longitudinally into two equal parts. One half of the rhizome and the three 1-cm root pieces were fixed in a fixative comprising of 70% ethanol, pure acetic acid and 35% formaldehyde in the ratio 18:1:1 in 10-ml vials for histological analysis (Dochez, 2004). The other half of the rhizome and remaining roots were preserved at -20°C for histochemical analysis of phenolic compounds.

Histological analysis

The fixed root and rhizome samples were trimmed back to *ca.* 0.25 cm long pieces prior to processing. The samples were dehydrated in an alcohol series of 70%, 80%, 90% and 100% alcohol for 2 hrs at each series and subsequently cleared in two steps of xylene. The dehydrated samples were impregnated in paraffin wax (50°C melting temp.), embedded in paraffin wax (80°C melting temp.) and mounted in wooden blocks (50 x 40 mm) for sectioning. Six µm thick transverse sections of roots and rhizomes were subsequently made using a microtome (Baird & Tatlock London Ltd, Chadwall, UK). Three sections from each

root and rhizome piece were mounted on microscope slides, dewaxed in xylene and rehydrated in four steps of descending alcohol series (100%, 90%, 80% and 70%) (Fogain and Gowen, 1996).

The rehydrated sections were stained for phenolic compounds by flooding the sections with 2% ferric chloride dissolved in 95% ethanol for 5 min, and counterstained with Orange G for 1 min. The sections were rinsed in 95% isopropanol and cleared in xylene. Sections stained for lignin were flooded with 1% safranin dissolved in water for 5 min, rinsed briefly in distilled water and counterstained in 5% light green in water for 3 min (Fogain and Gowen, 1996). After staining for phenolic compounds and lignin, the slides were dehydrated in a series of ascending concentrations of alcohol with four steps (90%, 95% and two stages of 100%). Sections on slides were mounted in a synthetic mounting medium (DPX mountant, BDH, Kampala, Uganda) and covered with a cover slip.

Stained sections were observed under a light microscope at X400 magnification and the number of cells with phenolic compounds recorded separately for central cylinder (vascular bundles) and the cortex region of both the root and rhizome. Preformed phenolic cells were recorded as those with granular precipitates dispersed throughout the cell vacuole (Mace, 1963; Fogain and Gowen, 1996). Fully formed phenolic cells were recorded as the cells appearing as one large amorphous mass of granular bodies (Fogain and Gowen, 1996). From each treatment at each time period, 15 root and 15 rhizome sections were examined. The number of preformed and fully formed phenolic cells were scored on a scale of 0 to 5 where 0 = zero cells, 1 = 1 to 4 cells, 2 = 5 to 10 cells, 3 = 11 to 15 cells, 4 = 16 to 20 cells and 5 = more than 20 stained cells (Dochez, 2004). For sections stained for lignin, the presence of lignified cell walls and the location of the lignified cells (central cylinder, cortex or endodermis) were recorded. Stained root and rhizome sections were photographed using a Zeiss Axioplan 2 light microscope (Carl-Zeiss, Oberkochen, Germany) fitted with a digital camera (AxioCam HR, Carl-Zeiss).

Histochemical analysis

Extraction of phenolic compounds

Phenolic compounds were extracted from the root and rhizome samples preserved at -20°C according to the method described by De Ascensão and Dubery (2003). Half a gram of frozen root and rhizome samples were ground in liquid nitrogen and transferred to 1-ml Eppendorf tubes. Nine hundred ml of 80% methanol was added and the mixture vortexed for 30 s. The mixture was homogenized for 1 hr in a rotary shaker and centrifuged at 12000 rpm for 10 min. The supernatant was transferred into new Eppendorf tubes and the extraction procedure repeated overnight. The supernatants from the first and second extraction were pooled and left on the bench to evaporate to ca. 1 ml of crude extracts. The extraction procedure was conducted in the laboratories at IITA-Uganda and the extracts preserved at 4°C. Histochemical analysis was carried out at the University of Pretoria, South Africa. The extracts were transported from IITA-Uganda to South Africa in cooler boxes at ca. 4°C and refrigerated immediately upon arrival.

Analysis of total soluble phenolic compounds by means of the Folin method

Total phenolic content was determined using the Folin method, which utilizes the Folin-Ciocaltaeu (FC) reagent (Sigma) (Swain and Hills, 1959). Reaction mixtures were prepared in 96-well Elisa plates (Merck, Darmstadt, Germany). Five µl of each crude extract was mixed with 175 µl distilled water and 25 µl FC reagent and left for 3 min, before adding 50 µl of saturated NaCO₃ and incubation at 40°C for 30 min. After incubation, absorbance was read at 690 nm using an ELISA reader (Multiskan Ascent, Version 1.3.1, Labsystems, Helsinki, Finland). For each root and rhizome sample, four absorbance readings were obtained and the average absorbance calculated. The absorbance of a blank consisting of distilled water was subtracted from all sample readings. Gallic acid was used to prepare a standard curve for estimation of the amount of soluble phenolics in each sample (Sivakumar *et al.*, 2005). The concentration of phenolic compounds in the crude root and rhizome extracts was subsequently calculated from the standard curve and expressed as µg gallic acid/g fresh weight.

Identification of phenolic compounds by high performance liquid chromatography

Phenolic compounds were identified and quantified using high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC). Three root and three rhizome samples from different plants sampled 2 weeks after endophyte inoculation were selected from each treatment for HPLC analysis. The crude extracts were first hydrolyzed with hydrochloric acid (De Ascensão and Dubery, 2003). For hydrolysis, 100 µl of the crude extract was mixed with 10 µl pure HCl, incubated at 96°C for 1 hr and extracted two times with anhydrous diethyl ether. The extract was evaporated to dryness and re-dissolved in 50-µl methanol. The hydrolyzed samples were assayed on a Hewlett- Packard (HP) HPLC system (Agilent 1100 series, Agilent Technologies, Palo Alto, CA, USA) equipped with a 20 µl loop injection valve (Agilent Technologies) and connected with a UV detector at 280, 325 and 340 nm. A Luna 3u C18 (Phenomenex, Palo Alto, CA, USA) reverse phase column (250 x 4.60 mm) was used. Acetonitrile and water (pH 2.6 acidified with phosphoric acid, H₃PO₄) were used as the solvents with a gradient program from 7% acetonitrile/water at 0 min, 20% at 20 min, 23% at 28 min, 27% at 40 min, 29% at 45 min, 33% at 47 min and 80% at 50 min. Twenty µl of the hydrolyzed extracts were injected and chromatogrammed with a flow rate of 1 ml/min. Data were analyzed using the HP software provided with the HPLC equipment. The phenolic compounds in the extracts were identified by comparison with the reference compounds: gallic acid, caffeic acid, ferulic acid, syringic acid, quercetin, umbelliferone, naringin, hydroxy benzoic acid, 3,4-dihydroxy benzoic acid, sinapic acid, vanillic acid, *p*-coumaric acid, salicylic acid, scopoletin, catechin, kaempferol, chlorogenic acid, luteolin and fisetin obtained from Sigma.

Data analysis

All data were tested for normality and homogeneity of variances using Shapiro-Wilkinson, Levene Welch and Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests. Normal probability plots, box plots and stem leaf plots were additionally used to confirm normality of data and equality of variances. If not normally distributed, various transformations were tested until the most suitable transformation was obtained. For the enzyme production assays, statistical analysis was

performed on the averages of the size of the clear zones (calculated from the difference in size between the fungal colony and the clear zone) using one-way ANOVA.

Nematode counts in the three split-root experiments were calculated per 100 g of roots and square-root ($x + 0.5$) transformed prior to analysis. Percentage root necrosis and percent endophytic colonization were arcsine-square root ($\sqrt{x} + 0.5$) transformed prior to analysis. One-way ANOVA was used to determine differences among repeat experiments. When differences were observed between experiments, data from each experiment was analyzed separately. In each experiment, one-way ANOVA was conducted to assess variability among treatments.

For the histological analysis of phenolic cells, the scores for pre-formed and fully formed phenolic cells were averaged for each treatment-week combination. Before statistical analysis, data was sqrt transformed. One-way ANOVA was used to evaluate differences among treatments, time (weeks) and plant part (rhizome or root). Two-way ANOVA was used to evaluate interaction effects between treatments, time and plant part. Interaction effects were subsequently evaluated using least square means. Differences in the number of phenolic cells between the central cylinder and cortex regions were evaluated using paired t-tests.

Data from histochemical analysis of soluble phenolic compounds with the FC reagent was expressed as μg gallic acid/gram of fresh weight and $\log(x + 1)$ transformed prior to analysis. One-way ANOVA was used to determine main effects of treatment, time and plant part. Two-way ANOVA was used to evaluate interaction effects between treatments, time and plant part using least square means. HPLC data was analyzed qualitatively by comparing the presence and absence of peaks in chromatograms obtained with the different treatments. Quantities of unidentified compounds, estimated from the area under the peaks (in milliabsorption units [mAU/s]), were used to evaluate quantitative differences among treatments. For the known phenolic compounds identified by comparison with the reference standards, the amount in $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ was used for comparison between endophyte and non-endophyte treatments. Data of the amounts of the unidentified compounds was $\log(x + 1)$ -transformed prior to analysis. One-way ANOVA was used to assess differences among treatments. For all experiments, differences between means were separated using Tukey's studentized range test (SAS Institute, 1989).

Results

Production of extra cellular enzymes

The nine *F. oxysporum* isolates tested did not show chitinase or lipase activity in solid medium, as no clear zone formed around the fungal colonies 1 week after incubation. All the isolates, however, showed positive protease activity. A clear zone formed around the fungal colonies 2 days after the fungus was placed on gelatine-amended medium (Fig. 2). The measurements of the fungal colony diameter and the diameter of the clear zone were conducted on the third day of incubation. Measurements could not be done on the second day since the distinction between the fungal colony and the clear zone could not be easily discerned. From the fourth day onwards the clear zone was not visible anymore. No clear zones were observed in the control plates in which the fungus was grown without the enzyme substrates. The diameters of the clear zone did not differ between the different fungal isolates ($P=0.0889$). However, based on the diameters of the halo, isolates *III3W3*, *Emb2.40*, *Eny1.3li* and *V4W5* had produced more protease activity compared to isolates *V5W2*, *Eny7.11o*, *V1W7*, *III4W1* and *V2W2* (Fig. 3).

Split-root experiments for assessment of induced resistance

The three *F. oxysporum* endophytic isolates did not reduce the number of *R. similis* significantly, with the exception in the number of females in Experiment 2 (Table 1). The total number of nematodes was also reduced significantly by isolates *Eny1.3li* and *V5W2* in Experiment 2. Generally, the responder half of endophyte-treated roots supported fewer females, juveniles, males and total nematodes than the control roots. Damage due to nematodes was not significantly different between the fungal isolates and the control treatment ($P=0.6934$) (Table 1).

The split-root system provided spatial separation of the nematodes from the endophytes on the same plant. No nematodes occurred in the uninoculated halves of the split-root systems. However, endophytic *F. oxysporum* was re-isolated from the untreated roots, indicating possible contamination of untreated halves. Percentage root colonization in the inducer half of

the split root systems differed significantly between the endophyte and control treatments ($P=0.0003$). In the inducer half, root colonization by isolates *Eny1.31i*, *V5W2* and *Eny7.11o* were $75.0 \pm 5.9\%$, $59.5 \pm 6.4\%$ and $52.7 \pm 5.4\%$, respectively. Root colonization in the control treatment ranged from $16.6 \pm 7.4\%$ to $37.6 \pm 7.2\%$ (data not presented). Root colonization by endophytic *F. oxysporum* was 40.8 ± 6.2 , 33.3 ± 6.6 , 25.7 ± 5.7 and $36.5 \pm 5.2\%$ in the responder roots when the inducer roots were treated with the fungal isolates *Eny1.31i*, *V5W2*, *Eny7.11o* and the uninoculated broth (control), respectively.

Analysis of phenolic compounds

Histological analysis

Phenolic cells were observed in the central cylinder and cortex of roots and rhizomes of all banana plants, whether they were treated or not treated with the endophytic *F. oxysporum* isolate *V5W2* (Fig. 4 and 5). Significantly more phenolic cells, however, were formed in the central cylinder than in the cortex of roots and rhizomes (Fig. 4 and 6) ($P=0.0027$). The number of phenolic cells that formed in the central cylinder of root and rhizome sections differed significantly between the different treatments applied ($P=0.0009$) the time since treatment ($P<0.0001$), and the plant parts investigated (root or rhizome) ($P<0.0001$) (Fig. 4). Root and rhizome sections from plants treated with the endophytic *F. oxysporum* isolate *V5W2* + *R. similis* had significantly more phenolic cells in their central cylinder compared to endophyte-untreated plants (Fig. 4). In the cortex, however, most phenolic cells were formed in plants treated with 50 mM K_2HPO_4 . The number of phenolic cells in the central cylinder of plants treated with *V5W2* only and *V5W2* + *R. similis* increased from week 0 to week 4, but reached its highest levels in the cortex 2 weeks after inoculation. More phenolic cells formed in *V5W2* + *R. similis* than in the negative control plants at each time interval, except in the rhizome cortex. While phenolic cells were present in plants treated with *R. similis* only, the numbers recorded were lower than in plants treated with the endophyte. No lignification of cell walls was demonstrated except in the endodermis of a few roots of endophyte-treated plants (data not shown).

Preformed phenolic cells with granular precipitates dispersed in the cell vacuoles were formed in the central cylinder and cortex of roots and rhizomes of both plants treated and not treated

with the endophytic *F. oxysporum* isolate *V5W2* (Fig. 6F). The endophyte treatment, however, resulted in higher numbers of preformed phenolic cells when compared to non-endophyte treated tissue ($P=0.0059$). The number of preformed phenolic cells in the roots and rhizomes increased significantly with time after endophyte inoculation ($P<0.0001$) and differed between plant parts (rhizomes and roots) ($P=0.0343$). The number of preformed phenolic cells in the central cylinder of both rhizomes and roots occurred in descending order in plants treated with isolate *V5W2* only, *V5W2* + *R. similis*, K_2HPO_4 , negative control and *R. similis* only (Fig. 5A and B). In plants treated with isolate *V5W2* only or with *V5W2* and *R. similis*, the number of preformed phenolic cells in the rhizomes increased from 0 weeks after inoculation, and reached a maximum after 2 weeks (Fig. 5A). In the roots, the maximum number of phenolic cells was observed mostly 1 or 2 weeks after inoculation (Fig. 5B). Although not significantly different, plants treated with *V5W2* and *V5W2* with *R. similis* had more preformed phenolic cells than the negative control plants and plants treated with *R. similis* only. Rhizomes had significantly more preformed phenolic cells ($P<0.0001$) than roots (Fig. 5C and D). More preformed phenolic cells were found in the central cylinder compared to the cortex regions ($P<0.0001$) (Fig. 5A and C, Fig. 5B and D).

Histochemical analysis

Analysis of total soluble phenolics

The amount of total soluble phenolics produced in the banana rhizome ($P=0.0019$) and roots ($P=0.0011$) differed significantly between endophyte and non-endophyte treated plants (Fig. 7). No differences in total soluble phenolics, however, were observed in rhizomes of plants treated with *V5W2* only and plants treated with *V5W2* and *R. similis* ($P=0.5390$). Total soluble phenolics also did not differ significantly in the roots of plants treated with endophytes and 50 mM K_2HPO_4 ($P=0.7285$). In all rhizome treatments, the amount of total soluble phenolics in rhizomes increased from week 0 to week 2, and then decreased in weeks 3 and 4 (Fig. 7A). The amount of total soluble phenolics in plants treated with *V5W2* only and plants treated with *V5W2* and *R. similis* increased by 16.8% and 41.9% from week 0 to week 2, respectively. In the roots, however, the total soluble phenolics dropped rapidly in both endophyte and non-endophyte treated plants from week 0 to the second week, after which it remained relatively stable until week 4 (Fig. 7 B).

HPLC analysis of phenolic compounds

HPLC separation of phenolic compounds extracted from rhizomes and roots of plants treated with the endophytic *F. oxysporum* isolate *V5W2* and *R. similis* revealed the elution of four major peaks (Fig. 8). These peaks did not represent compounds of any of the known reference standards. Based on spectral analysis, they had spectrums similar to that of ferulic acid with a maximum absorbance at 280 and 325 nm, and thus belong to the hydrocinnamics group of phenolic compounds (Harborne, 1991). Unknown compound 1 with a retention time of 2.39 min was found in extracts from plants treated with 50 mM K_2HPO_4 , *V5W2* and *V5W2* and *R. similis* but in undetectable amounts in the negative control and *R. similis*-treated plants (Fig. 8). No significant differences were found in the size of the peaks (unknown compounds 2, 3 and 4) between endophyte and non-endophyte treatments. Extracts from endophyte-treated plants, however, were higher for compounds 3 and 4, although not significantly different from non-endophyte treatments (Fig. 9). The amounts of compounds 2 (retention time 7.83 min), 3 (retention time 17.7 min), and 4 (retention time 33.3 min), were significantly higher in the plants treated with 50 mM K_2PO_4 and plants treated with *R. similis* only compared to endophyte-treated plants. Quantities of unknown compounds 2 ($P=0.0484$) and 3 ($P=0.0401$) were significantly more in the rhizome compared to the roots, unlike unknown compound 3 ($P=0.1831$) (Fig. 9).

The known phenolic compounds in rhizome and root extracts did not differ among the endophyte and non-endophyte treatments ($P=0.4525$) (Table 2) with the exception of hydroxybenzoic and p -coumaric acid, which were detected in the rhizome of plants treated with both *V5W2* and *R. similis*, but not in the negative control. Gallic acid was detected in the rhizome of plants treated with 50mM K_2HPO_4 . Other compounds, such as 3, 4 dihydroxybenzoic acid, vanillic acid, ferulic acid and syringic acid were present in both endophyte-treated and untreated plants (Table 2).

Discussion

Endophyte treatment of banana roots with endophytic *F. oxysporum* appeared to trigger defence mechanisms that could reduce reproduction of *R. similis* (Chapter 4). It did not, however, reduce the numbers of nematodes infecting the roots or reduce nematode-inflicted damage to the roots. According to the current investigation, the enhanced production of phenolic compounds in cells, primarily in the central cylinder of the roots and rhizome due to endophyte infection is a major indicator of induced host resistance response. These phenolic depositions appeared to be induced, as the number of phenolic cells increased over time. Induced resistance in plants might not be the only mechanisms of action whereby endophytic *F. oxysporum* result in biological control of nematodes, as the endophytic isolates also showed protease activity *in vitro* and also produced toxic secondary metabolites (Chapter 2).

Extracellular hydrolytic enzymes target the external and internal structures of nematodes and their eggs (Wuyts *et al.*, 2004). In this study, all nine endophytic *F. oxysporum* isolates produced proteases, but none showed chitinolytic or lipolytic activity. The production of proteases might be partly responsible for mortality of the motile stages of *R. similis* when they were treated with fungal culture filtrates (Chapter 2), since the nematode cuticle is mainly composed of proteins (Inglis, 1983). Vu *et al.* (2004) previously demonstrated a lack of direct parasitism of *R. similis* by endophytic *Fusarium* isolates, suggesting that other secondary metabolites might be involved in the killing of nematodes. The lack of chitinolytic and lipolytic activity suggests that direct parasitism of nematode eggs, composed mainly of chitin and lipids (Bird and Bird, 1991), by *F. oxysporum* is unlikely. Poor hatching of *R. similis* eggs treated with fungal filtrates (Chapter 2) should, therefore, rather be attributed to other secondary metabolites and toxins. To confirm the role of extracellular enzymes and toxins in biological control, specific secondary metabolites need to be purified from fungal cultures and assayed against nematodes and their eggs, and observations made by means of scanning electron microscopy (Bonants *et al.*, 1995).

For direct parasitism of the nematodes by fungal hyphae to occur, contact between the nematode and the fungus for a sufficient duration is required. Paparu (2005) demonstrated that colonization of banana roots by endophytic *F. oxysporum* isolates was extensive in the hypodermal cells and cortex. All developmental stages of *R. similis* also occur in the cortex of

plant roots (Araya and De Waele, 2001; Gowen and Quénéhervé, 2005). Despite occupying the same niche inside roots, direct parasitism of the destructive stages and eggs of *R. similis* by endophytic fungi may not happen due to the migratory nature of the nematode. Though direct parasitism may not necessarily represent a substantial part of nematode control by endophytes, the association with other modes of action, for instance the production of toxic metabolites and induced resistance, may improve their efficacy and levels of plant protection.

Split-root systems have been used to investigate induced systemic resistance by non-pathogenic isolates of *F. oxysporum* in tomato (Ogallo and McClure, 1996; Fuchs *et al.*, 1997; Larkin and Fravel, 1999) and cucumber (Mandeel and Baker, 1991). Using split-root experiments, several researchers have reported induction of systemic resistance against root-knot nematodes, *Meloidogyne* spp. (Aalten *et al.*, 1998; Siddiqui and Shaukat, 2002; 2003; 2004) and the potato cyst nematode, *Globodera pallida* (Sikora and Reitz, 1998; Reitz *et al.*, 2000). In this study, split-root experiments did not convincingly demonstrate the ability of endophytic *F. oxysporum* isolates to induce systemic resistance in banana plants against *R. similis*. In one experiment, *R. similis* numbers were significantly reduced by isolates V5W2, Eny1.31i and Eny7.11o compared to the control treatment, but not in the other two experiments. The number of nematodes in these experiments, however, was still lower than in the control treatments. This indicates that there was some measure of induced systemic resistance in the plants against the nematode. The lack of significance between the two split-root experiments may have been due to the small sample size (low numbers of replications per treatment) and high variation between replicates within a treatment. Contamination by other endophytic *F. oxysporum* may also have buffered the effects of the inoculated isolates resulting in lack of significant results.

This study provides the first indication of ISR by endophytic *F. oxysporum* against *R. similis* in banana. While endophytic *F. oxysporum* isolates have been used to suppress *R. similis* in banana before (Pocasangre 2000; Sikora *et al.*, 2000; Niere 2001; Chapter 3 and 4), none of these studies demonstrated endophyte-induced resistance. Endophytic isolates of *F. oxysporum* and *Pseudomonas fluorescens* Migula proved to induce systemically acquired resistance in Cavendish banana against *F. oxysporum* f.sp. *cubense*, the causal agent of Fusarium wilt (Belgrove and Viljoen, personal communication). Similarly, Aalten *et al.* (1998) concluded that rhizosphere strains of fluorescent *Pseudomonas* spp. elicited induced

systemic resistance responses in banana plants that reduced *R. similis* and *Meloidogyne* spp. numbers in the roots.

Contamination of untreated split-roots by *F. oxysporum* may denote that the effects of endophyte treatment on *R. similis* cannot be ascribed to ISR. For ISR to occur, spatial separation of the inducing agents and the nematode must be maintained (Siddiqui and Shaikat, 2002). Despite the presence of endophytic *F. oxysporum* in untreated split-roots, nematode reproduction in plants treated with endophytes was substantially less than in the case of the endophyte-untreated roots in one experiment, suggesting possible ISR. However, the lack of significant reduction in nematode numbers and root damage between endophyte-treated and non-treated plants in the other two experiments can either be ascribed to contamination by *F. oxysporum*, or a lack of ISR. The most effective way to confirm ISR would be to conduct the experiments in a controlled environment that prevents introduction of other fungi to the untreated plants. From the current study it is clear that further investigations are required on the threshold root colonization as well as on persistence of systemic resistance in banana against *R. similis*. Hallman *et al.* (1997) previously demonstrated that, even when colonization rates of roots by endophytes decline over time, the plant may retain the induced protection over time.

No significant difference was observed in the number of fully formed and preformed phenolic cells in the rhizomes and roots of banana plants immediately after endophyte inoculation. The increase in the number of phenolic cells from week 1 to 4, however, may be attributed to increased (induced) synthesis due to endophyte and nematode infection. The number of phenolic cells in *R. similis*-infected plants was lower than in endophyte-treated plants, indicating a positive response to endophyte infection. The higher number of phenolic cells formed when both endophyte and nematode were inoculated on banana roots, compared to when they were inoculated separately, indicates that the joint infection induced greater plant defence responses. This could be explained by the report of Kloepper *et al.* (1992) that induced plants often do not produce defence chemicals until challenged by a pest or pathogen. The presence of constitutive phenols has been associated with resistance in banana cultivars against *R. similis* (Fogain and Gowen, 1996; Collingborn *et al.*, 2000; Dochez, 2004). In future experiments, it may be useful to additionally include a resistant cultivar for comparative purposes.

No significant differences were obtained in total soluble phenolics between endophyte-treated and untreated plants, but higher concentrations occurred in the endophyte-treated plants compared to non-treated plants over time. The high concentration of phenolic compounds in the roots immediately after endophyte inoculation was unexpected. This may be due to transplanting shock and some injury of the plants during handling, as the plants were sampled immediately after establishment of the experiment. An increase in the levels of phenolic compounds is known to occur due to both biotic and abiotic stress factors (Beckman, 2000).

Qualitative analysis by HPLC revealed four major unknown compounds in root and rhizome extracts of plants in endophyte and non-endophyte treatments. One compound was only found in plants treated with the chemical inducer and also in the endophyte-treated plants but in very low amounts in the negative controls and *R. similis*-treated plants indicating induced synthesis of this compound. The areas under the peaks of two unknown compounds were slightly larger in the endophyte-treatments compared to the controls, a possible indication of their importance in the defence mechanism of the plants triggered by the fungal endophyte. Further characterization of these compounds is required to elucidate their identity. Nevertheless, quantitative differences observed between endophyte-inoculated and uninoculated plants suggest that the presence of the endophyte triggers the plant to increase synthesis of these compounds. The results obtained in the current study further indicate that the presence of the four unidentified compounds are not entirely due to endophyte infection as they were detected in both endophyte-inoculated and uninoculated plants. There is strong evidence indicating that phenolic compounds are involved in plant resistance against nematodes (Hung and Rohde, 1973; Mahajan *et al.*, 1985). The endophyte-induced phenolics in banana plants most likely play a significant role in the suppression of *R. similis*.

References

- Aalten, P.M., Vitour, D., Blanvillain, D., Gowen, S.R. and Sutra, L. (1998). Effect of rhizosphere fluorescent *Pseudomonas* strains on plant-parasitic nematodes *Radopholus similis* and *Meloidogyne* spp. Letters in Applied Microbiology 27: 357-361.
- Alves, M.H., Campos-Takaki, G., Porto, A.L.F. and Milanez, A.I. (2002). Screening of *Mucor* spp. for the production of amylase, lipase, polygalactonurase and protease. Brazilian Journal of Microbiology 33: 325-330.
- Araya, M. and De Waele, D. (2001). Spatial distribution of nematodes in three banana (*Musa AAA*) root parts considering two root thicknesses in three management systems. Acta Oecologia 26: 137-148.
- Bajaj, K.L., Arora, Y.K. and Mahajan, R. (1983). Biochemical differences in tomato cultivars resistant and susceptible to *Meloidogyne incognita*. Revue Nématologie 6: 143-154.
- Beckman, C.H. (2000). Phenolic storing cells: keys to programmed cell death and periderm formation in wilt disease resistance and in general defence responses in plants? Physiological and Molecular Plant Pathology 57: 101-110.
- Bird, A.F. and Bird, J. (1991). The structure of nematodes. 2nd ed. Academic Press, San Diego, CA. Chapman, RF 1971. p287.
- Bonants, P.J., Fitters, P.F., Thijs, H., den Belder, E., Waalwijk, C. and Henfling J.W. (1995). A basic serine protease from *Paecilomyces lilacinus* with biological activity against *Meloidogyne hapla* eggs. Microbiology 141: 775-784.
- Collingborn, F.M.B, Gowen, S.R. and Muller-Harvey, I. (2000). Investigations into the biochemical basis for nematode resistance in roots of three *Musa* cultivars in response to *Radopholus similis* infection. Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry 48: 5297-5301.
- De Ascensão, R.F.D.C. and Dubery, I.A. (2003). Soluble and cell wall bound phenolics and phenolic polymers in *Musa acuminata* roots exposed to elicitors from *Fusarium oxysporum* f. sp. *cubense*. Phytochemistry 63: 679-683.
- Dochez, C. (2004). Breeding for resistance to *Radopholus similis* in East African highland bananas (*Musa* spp.). PhD thesis. Katholieke Universiteit Leuven, Leuven. Belgium, p.195.
- Dubois, T., Gold, C.S., Coyne, D., Paparu, P., Mukwaba, E., Athman, S., Kapindu, S. and Adipala, E. (2004). Merging biotechnology with biological control: banana *Musa*

- tissue culture plants enhanced by endophytic fungi. *Uganda Journal of Agricultural Sciences* 9: 445-451.
- Fogain, R. and Gowen, S.R. (1996). Investigations on possible mechanisms of resistance to nematodes in *Musa*. *Euphytica* 92: 375-381.
- Fogain, R. and Gowen, S.R. (1997). "Yangambi KM5" (*Musa* AAA, Ibota subgroup): a possible source of resistance to *Radopholus similis* and *Pratylenchus goodeyi*. *Fundamentals of Applied Nematology* 20: 1-6.
- Fuchs, J.G., Moënno-Loccoz, Y. and Defago, G. (1997). Non-pathogenic *Fusarium oxysporum* strain Fo47 induces resistance to Fusarium wilt in tomato. *Plant Disease* 81: 492-496.
- Giebel, J. (1974). Biochemical mechanisms of plant resistance to nematodes: a review. *Journal of Nematology* 6:175-184.
- Giebel, J. (1982). Mechanisms of resistance against plant nematodes. *Annual Review of Phytopathology* 20: 257-279.
- Gold, C.S., Kiggundu, A., Karamura, D. and A. Abera (1998). Diversity, distribution and selection criteria of *Musa* germplasm in Uganda. In Picq, C., Foure, E. and Frison, E.A. (Eds). *Bananas and food security*. International Symposium in Cameroon, November 1998.
- Gowen, S., Quénéhervé, P. and Fogain, R. (2005). Nematode parasites of banana, plantains and Abàca. In: Luc, M., Sikora, R.A. and Bridge, J. (eds). *Plant parasitic nematodes in subtropical and tropical agriculture*. CAB International, Wallingford, UK. pp. 611-644.
- Hallman, J. and Sikora, R.A. (1994a). *In vitro* and *in vivo* control of *Meloidogyne incognita* with culture filtrates from non-pathogenic *Fusarium oxysporum* on tomato. *Journal of Nematology* 26: 102.
- Hallman, J. and Sikora, R.A. (1994b). Occurrence of plant parasitic nematodes and non-pathogenic species of *Fusarium* in tomato plants in Kenya and their role as mutualistic synergists for biological control of root-knot nematodes. *International Journal of Pest Management* 40: 321-325.
- Hallman, J., Quadt-Hallman, A., Mahafee, W.F. and Kloepper, J.W. (1997). Bacterial endophytes in agricultural crops. *Canadian Journal of Microbiology* 43: 895-914.
- Harborne, J.B. (1991). Phenolic compounds. In: *Phytochemical methods. A guide to modern techniques of plant analysis*. 2nd edition. Chapman and Hall, London, UK. pp 37-54.

- Hervás, A., Trapero-Casas, J.L. and Jimenez-Diaz, R.M. (1995). Induced resistance against Fusarium wilt of chickpea by non-pathogenic races of *Fusarium oxysporum* f. sp. *ciceris* and non-pathogenic isolates of *F. oxysporum*. *Plant Disease* 79: 1110-1116.
- Hooper, D.J., Hallmann, J. and Subbotin, S.A. (2005). Methods for extraction, processing and detection of plant and soil nematodes In: Luc, M., Sikora, R.A. and Bridge, J. (Eds). *Plant parasitic nematodes in subtropical and tropical agriculture*. CAB International, Wallingford, UK. pp. 53-86.
- Hsu, S.C. and Lockwood, J.L. (1975). Powdered chitin agar as a selective medium for enumeration of Actinomycetes in water and soil. *Applied Microbiology* 28: 422-426.
- Hung, C. and Rohde, R.A. (1973). Phenol accumulation related to resistance in tomato to infection by root-knot and lesion nematodes. *Journal of Nematology* 5: 253-258.
- Inglis, W.G. (1983). The design of the nematode body wall: the ontogeny of the cuticle. *Australian Journal of Zoology* 31: 705-716.
- Kloepper, J.W., Tuzun, S. and Kúc, J.A. (1992). Proposed definitions related to induced disease resistance. *Biocontrol Science and Technology* 2: 349-351.
- Larkin, R.P. and Fravel, D.R. (1999). Mechanisms of action and dose-response relationships governing control of Fusarium wilt of tomato by non-pathogenic *Fusarium* spp. *Phytopathology* 89: 1152-1161.
- Mace, M.E. (1963). Histochemical localization of phenols in healthy and diseased banana roots. *Physiologica Plantarum* 16: 915-925.
- Mahajan, R., Singh, P. and Bajaj, K.L. (1985). Nematicidal activity of some phenolic compounds against *Meloidogyne incognita*. *Revue Nématologie* 8: 161-164.
- Manandhar, H.K., Lyngs Jørgensen, H.J., Mathur, S.B. and Smedegaard-Peterson, V. (1998). Resistance to rice blast induced by ferric chloride, di-potassium hydrogen phosphate and salicylic acid. *Crop Protection* 17:232-329.
- Mandeel, Q. and Baker, R. (1991). Mechanisms involved in biological control of Fusarium wilt of cucumber with strains of non-pathogenic *Fusarium oxysporum*. *Phytopathology* 81: 462-469.
- Mansfield, J.W. (1983). Antimicrobial compounds. In: *Biochemical plant pathology*. Callow, J.A. (Ed). John Wiley & Sons. pp. 237-265.
- Mateille, T., Quénéhervé, P. and Hugon, R. (1994). The development of plant-parasitic nematode infestations on micro-propagated banana plants following field control measures in Côte d'Ivoire. *Annals of Applied Biology* 125: 147-159.

- McIntyre, B.D., Speijer, P.R., Riha, S.J, and Kizito, F. (2000). Effects of mulching on biomass, nutrients, and soil water in banana inoculated with nematodes. *Agronomy Journal* 92: 1081-1085.
- McIntyre, B.D., Gold. C.S., Kashaia, I.N., Ssali, H., Night, G. and Bwamiki, D.P. (2001). Effects of legume intercrops on soil-borne pests, biomass, nutrients and soil water in banana. *Biology and Fertility of Soils* 34: 342-348.
- Minglian, Z., Minghe, Mo. and Keqin, Z. (2004). Characterization of a neutral serine protease and its full-length cDNA form the nematode-trapping fungus *Arthrobotrys oligospora*. *Mycologia* 96: 16-22.
- Nel, B., Steinberg, C., Labuschagne, N., Viljoen, A. (2006). The potential of non-pathogenic *Fusarium oxysporum* and other biological control organisms for suppressing Fusarium wilt of banana. *Plant Pathology* 55: 217-223.
- Nelson, P.E., Toussoun, T.A. and Marasas, W.F.O. (1983). *Fusarium* species. An illustrated manual for identification. The Pennsylvania State University Press, University Park. Pennsylvania. USA. p193.
- Niere, B.I. (2001). Significance of non-pathogenic isolates of *Fusarium oxysporum* Schlecht.: Fries for the biological control of the burrowing nematode *Radopholus similis* (Cobb) Thorne on tissue cultured banana. PhD thesis, University of Bonn, Bonn. Germany. p118.
- Ogallo, J.L. and McClure, M.A. (1996). Systemic acquired resistance and susceptibility to root knot nematodes in tomato. *Phytopathology* 86: 498-501.
- Paparu, P. (2005). Colonization, distribution and persistence of fungal endophytes in tissue culture banana. MSc thesis. Makerere University. Kampala, Uganda. p155.
- Pegard, A., Brizzard, G., Fazari, A., Soucaze, O., Abad, P. and Djian-Caporalino, C. (2005). Histological characterization of resistance to different root-knot nematode species related to phenolics accumulation in *Capsicum annum*. *Phytopathology* 95: 158-165.
- Peng, Y. and Moens, M. (2004). Host resistance and tolerance to migratory plant-parasitic nematodes. *Nematology* 5: 145-177.
- Perry, R.N. and Trett, M.W. (1986). Ultrastructure of the eggshell of *heterodera schachtii* and *H. Glycines* (Nematoda: Tylenchida). *Revue Nématologie* 9: 399-406.
- Pocasangre, L. (2000). Biological enhancement of tissue culture plantlets with endophytic fungi for the control of the burrowing nematodes *Radopholus similis* and the Panama

- disease (*Fusarium oxysporum* f. sp. *cubense*). PhD thesis, University of Bonn, Bonn, Germany. p94
- Ramamoorthy, V., Viswanathan, R., Raguchander, T., Prakasam, V. and Samiyappan, R. (2001). Induction of systemic resistance by plant growth promoting rhizobacteria in crop plants against pests and diseases. *Crop Protection* 20: 1-11.
- Reitz, M., Rudolph, K., Schröder, I., Hoffmann-Hergarten, S., Hallman, J. and Sikora, R.A. (2000). Lipopolysaccharides of *Rhizobium etli* strain G12 act in potato roots as an inducing agent of systemic resistance to infection by the cyst nematode *Globodera pallida*. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* 66: 3515-3518.
- Sarah, J.L. (1989). Banana nematodes and their control in Africa. *Nematropica* 19: 199-216.
- Sarah, J.L., Pinochet, J. and Stanton, J. (1996). The burrowing nematode of bananas, *Radopholus similis* Cobb. *Musa* Pest fact Sheet No. 1. INIBAP. Montpellier, France.
- Sarah, J.L., Fogain, R. and Valette, C. (1997). Nematode resistance in bananas: varietal screening and resistance mechanisms. *Fruits* 52: 267-271.
- Sarah, J.L. (2000). Burrowing nematode. In: Jones, D.R. (Ed). *Diseases of banana, abaca and enset*. CAB International. Wallingford, UK. pp. 295-303.
- SAS Institute (1989). *SAS/STAT User's Guide, Version 6 Fourth Edition Volume 1*. SAS Institute, Cary, USA. p943.
- Schuster, R. P., Sikora, R. A. and Amin, N. (1995). Potential of endophytic fungi for the biological control of plant parasitic nematodes. *Mededelingen van de Faculteit Landbouwwetenschappen Rijksuniversiteit Gent* 60: 1047-1052.
- Schulz, B., Rommert, A., Dammann, U., Aust, H. and Strack, D. (1999). The endophyte-host interaction: a balanced antagonism? *Mycological Research* 103: 1275-1283.
- Segers, R., Butt, T.M., Kerry, B.R. and Peberdy, J.F. (1994). The nematophagous fungus *Verticillium chlamyosporium* produces a chymoelastase-like protease which hydrolyses host nematode proteins in situ. *Microbiology* 140: 2715-2723.
- Siddiqui, I.A. and Shaukat, S.S. (2002). Rhizobacteria-mediated induction of systemic resistance in tomato against *Meloidogyne javanica*. *Journal of Phytopathology* 150: 469-473.
- Siddiqui, I.A. and Shaukat, S.S. (2003). Suppression of the root-knot disease by *Pseudomonas fluorescens* CHAO in tomato: importance of bacterial secondary metabolite, 2,4-diacetylphloroglucinol. *Soil Biology and Biochemistry* 35: 1615-1623.

- Siddiqui, I.A. and Shaikat, S.S. (2004). Systemic resistance in tomato induced by biocontrol bacteria against the root-knot nematode, *Meloidogyne javanica* is independent of salicylic acid production. *Journal of Phytopathology* 152: 48-54.
- Sikora, R.A. and Reitz, M. (1998). Mechanisms of action of induced resistance to the potato cyst nematode *Globodera pallida* mediated by rhizobacteria. Abstracts, Society of Nematologists 37th Annual Meeting, St. Louis, Missouri, USA. 20-24 July.
- Sikora, R.A., Schuster, R.P. and Griesbach, M. (2000). Improved plant health through biological enhancement of banana planting material with mutualistic endophytes. *Acta Horticulturae* 540: 409-413.
- Sikora, R.A., Niere, B. and Kimenju, J. (2003). Endophytic microbial biodiversity and plant nematode management in African agriculture. In: Neuenschwander, P., Borgemeister, C. and Langewald, J. (Eds). *Biological control in IPM systems in Africa*. CAB International, Wallingford, UK. pp.179-192.
- Sivakumar, D., Regnier, T.R., Demoz, B. and Korsten, L. (2005). Effect of different post-harvest treatments on overall quality retention in litchi fruit during low temperature storage. *The Journal of Horticultural Science and Biotechnology*, 80: 32-38.
- Speijer, P.R., Gold C.S., Kajumba, C. and Karamura E.B. (1995). Nematode infestation of 'clean' banana planting materials in farmer's fields in Uganda. *Nematologica* 41: 344.
- Speijer, P.R. and De Waele, D. (1997). Screening of *Musa* germplasm for resistance and tolerance to nematodes. INIBAP Technical Guidelines 1. INIBAP Montpellier, France. p47.
- Speijer, P.R., Kajumba, C. and Ssango, F. (1999). East African highland banana production as influenced by nematodes and crop management in Uganda. *International Journal of Pest Management* 45: 41-49.
- Speijer, P.R. and Kajumba, C. (2000). Yield loss from plant parasitic nematodes in East African highland banana (*Musa* spp. AAA). *Acta Horticulturae* 540: 453-459.
- Stirling, G.R. (1991). *Biological control of plant parasitic nematodes*. CAB International, Wallingford, UK. p282.
- Strauss, J. and Labuschagne, N. (1995). Pathogenicity of *Fusarium solani* isolates on citrus roots and evaluation of different inoculum types. *Toegepaste Plantwetenskap* 9: 48-52.
- Strobel, G. and Daisy, B. (2003). Bioprospecting for microbial endophytes and their natural products. *Microbiology and Molecular Biology Reviews* 67: 491-502.

- Swain, T. and Hills, W.E. (1959). The phenolic constituents of *Prunus domestica* I. the quantitative analysis of phenolic constituents. *Journal of Science and Food agriculture* 10: 63-68.
- Talwana, H.A.L, Speijer, P.R., Gold, C.S., Swennen, R.L. and De Waele, D. (2003). A comparison of the effects of the nematodes *Radopholus similis* and *Pratylenchus goodeyi* on growth, root health and yield of an East African highland cooking banana (*Musa* AAA-group). *International Journal of Pest Management* 49: 199-204.
- Tikhonov, V.E., Lopez-Lorca-L.V., Salinas, J. and Jansson, H. (2002). Purification of and characterization of chitinases from the nematophagous fungi *Verticillium chlamydosporium* and *V. suchlasporium*. *Fungal Genetics and Biology* 35: 67-78.
- Valette, C., Andary, C., Geiger, J.P., Sarah, J.L. and Nicole, M. (1998). Histochemical and cytochemical investigations of phenols in roots of banana infected by the burrowing nematode *Radopholus similis*. *Phytopathology* 88: 1141-1148.
- Vu, T.T., Sikora, R.A. and Hauschild, R. (2004). Effects of endophytic *Fusarium oxysporum* towards *Radopholus similis* activity in the absence of banana. *Communications in Agricultural and Applied Biological Sciences* 69: 381-385.
- Vuylsteke, D. (1998). Shoot-tip Culture for the Propagation, Conservation, and Distribution of *Musa* Germplasm. International Institute of Tropical Agriculture. Ibadan. Nigeria. p73.
- Wuyts, N., Elsen, A., Van Damme, E., De Waele, D, Swennen, R. and Sági, L. (2004). Lectin binding to the banana-parasitic nematode *Radopholus similis*. *FAO website*; <http://www.fao.org/docrep/007/ae216e/ae216e0j.htm>.
- Zinov'eva, S.V., Vasyukova, N.I. and Ozeretskovskaya, O.L. (2004). Biochemical aspects of plant interactions with phytoparasitic nematodes: A review. *Applied Biochemistry and Microbiology* 40: 111-119.

Figure 1. Illustration of the split-root system used for assessment of induced resistance by endophytic *Fusarium oxysporum* isolates against *Radopholus similis*. Two-month-old tissue culture banana plants of the cv. Enyeru (*Musa* spp. AAA-EA) in split-root systems within adjacent pots (A) and the split-root system with the upper undivided portion of roots and rhizome section wrapped in cotton wool (B). The fungal isolates or uninoculated broth and nematodes were applied in the halves designated a (inducer half), and b (responder half), respectively.

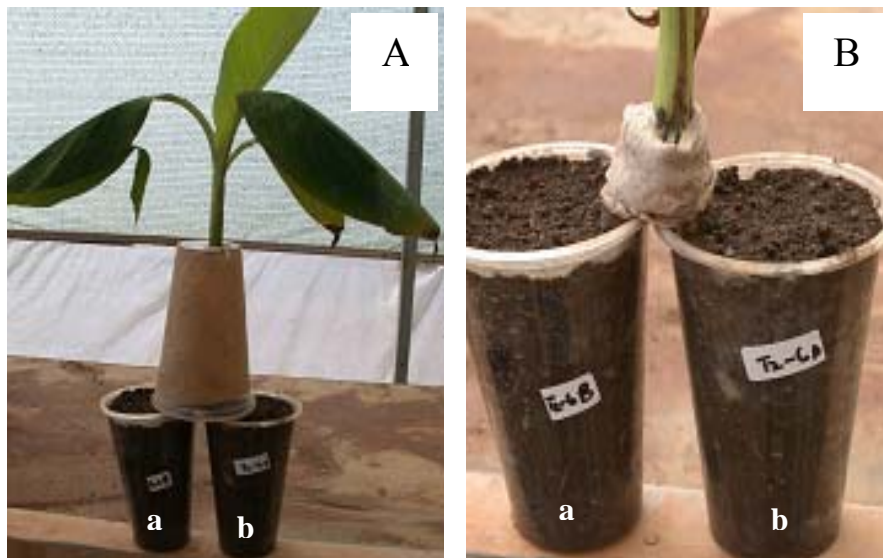


Figure 2. Protease activity of endophytic *Fusarium oxysporum* (isolate Eny1.31i) in a 65-mm-diameter Petri dish 3 days after inoculation on gelatine-amended medium. The clear zone (halo) indicates positive protease activity.

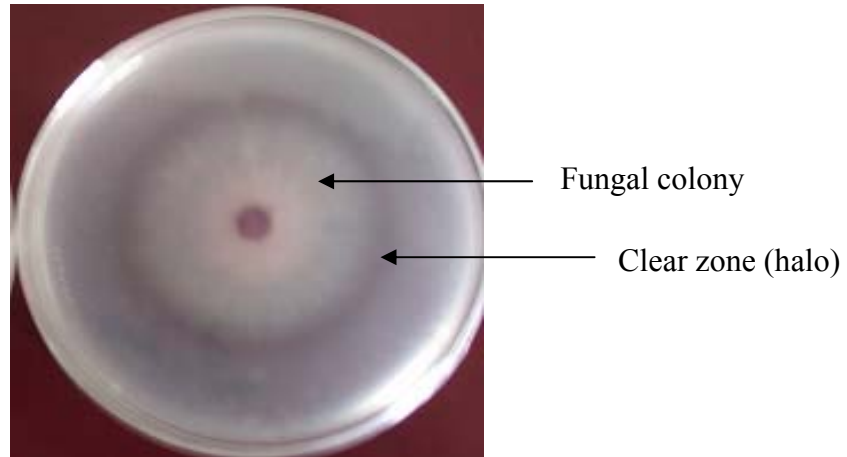
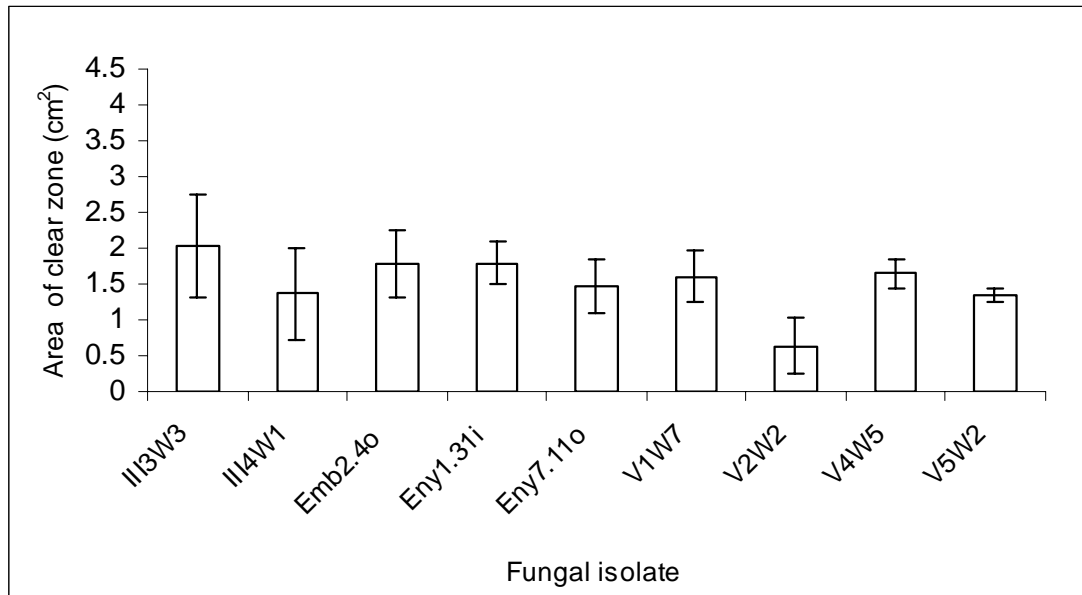
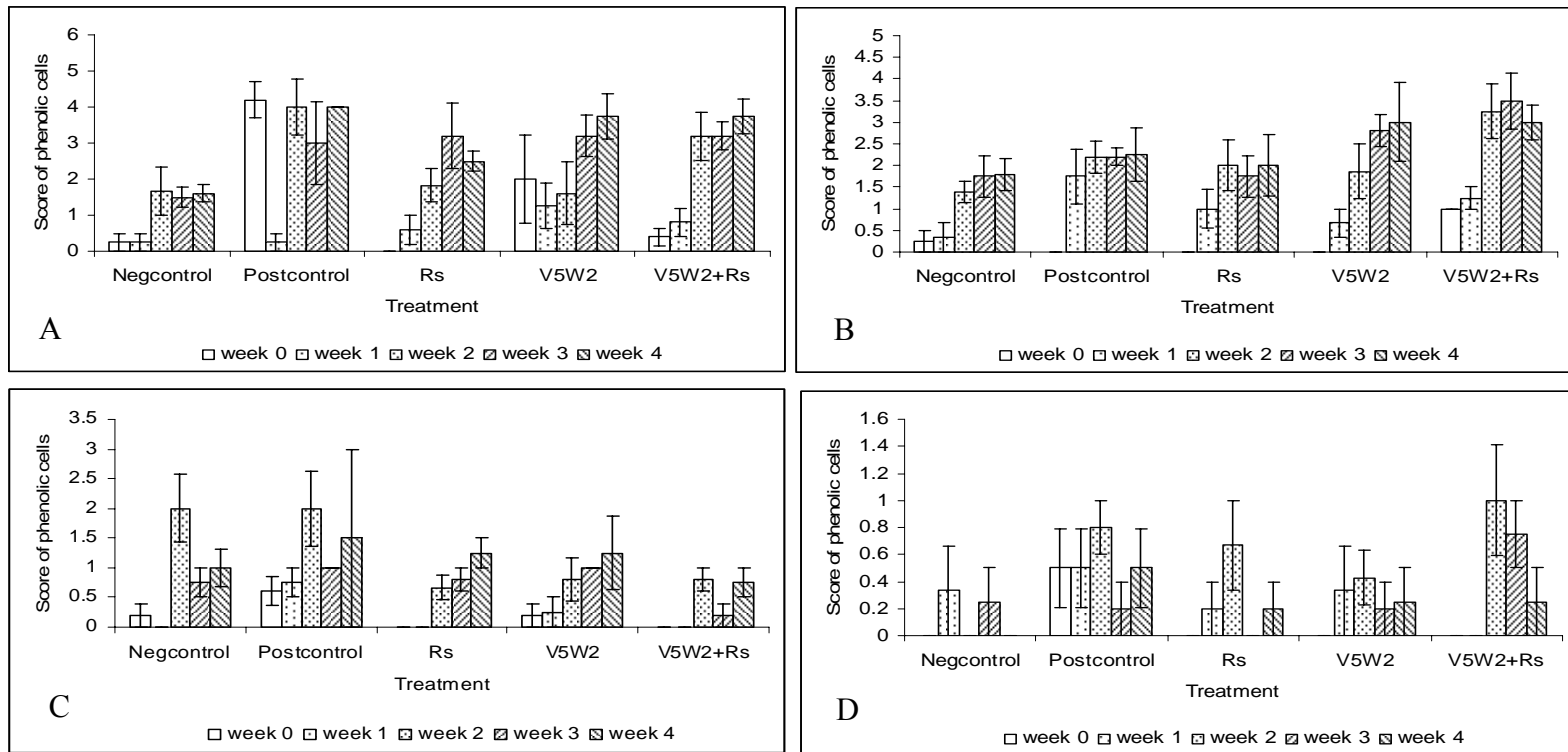


Figure 3. Level of protease activity exhibited by nine endophytic *Fusarium oxysporum* isolates 3 days after inoculation on gelatine-amended medium. The levels of protease activity were estimated using the diameter of the halo zone (cm) compared to the fungal colony diameter.



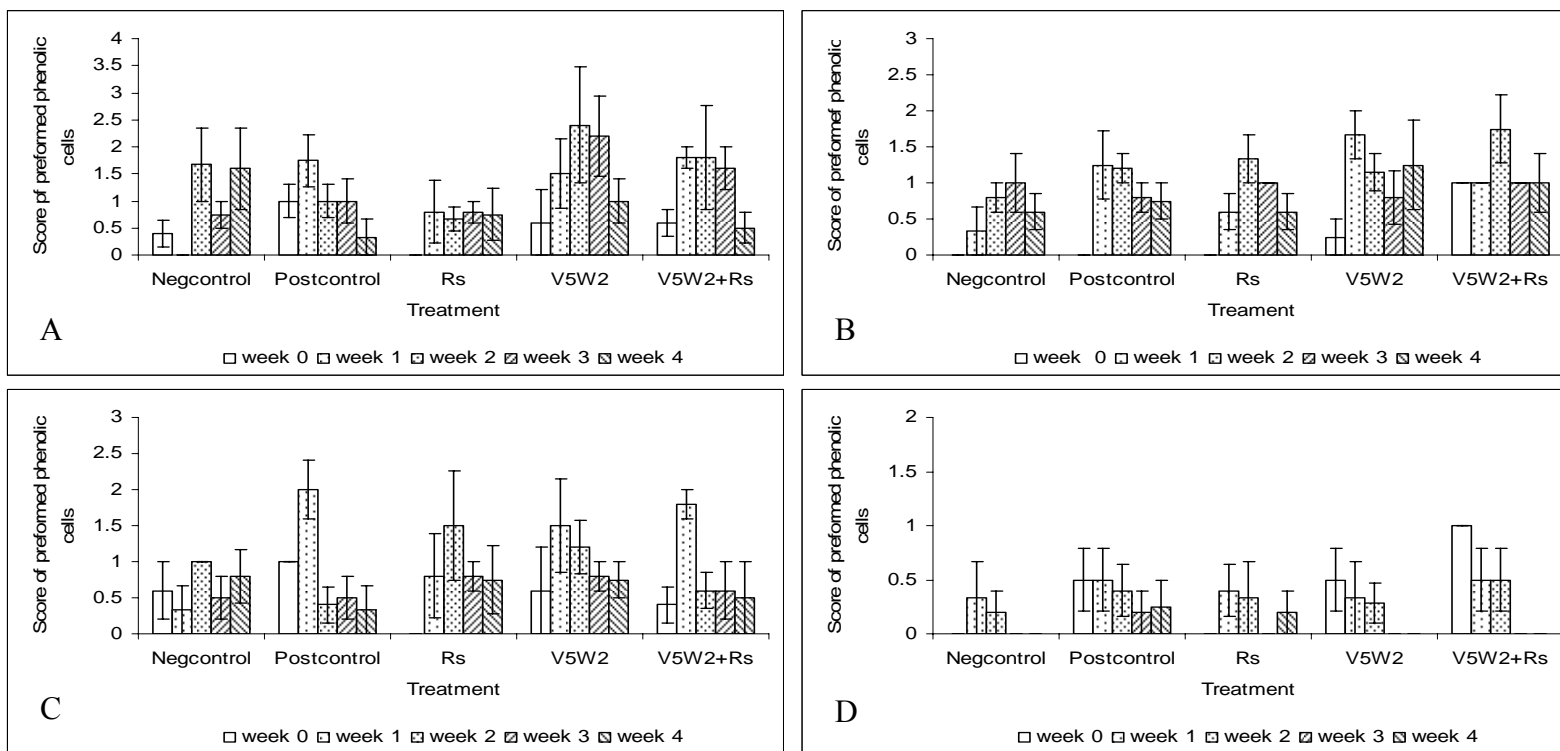
Error bars represent standard errors of the mean (n=5).

Figure 4. Fully formed phenolic cells in the central cylinder of transverse sections of rhizomes (A) and root (B), and in the cortex region of rhizomes (C) and roots (D), 0 to 4 weeks after treatment of plants with or without endophytes and/or nematodes. Formation of phenolic cells were scored on a scale of 0-5, where 0 = zero, 1 = 1 to 4, 2 = 5 to 10, 3 = 11 to 15, 4 = 16 to 20 and 5 = more than 20 phenolic cells.



Negcontrol=negative control (sterile millet seed), Postcontrol=Positive control (50 mM K₂HPO₄); V5W2= endophyte isolate V5W2; Rs= *Radopholus similis*. Error bars represent standard errors of the mean, n=15.

Figure 5. Preformed phenolic cells in the central cylinder of transverse sections of rhizomes (A) and root (B); and the cortex region of rhizomes (C) and roots (D), 0 to 4 weeks after treatment of plants with or without endophytes and/or nematodes. Formation of phenolic cells were scored on a scale of 0-5, where 0 = zero, 1 = 1 to 4, 2 = 5 to 10, 3 = 11 to 15, 4 = 16 to 20 and 5 = more than 20 phenolic cells.



Negcontrol=negative control (sterile millet seed); Postcontrol=Positive control (50 mM K₂HPO₄); V5W2= endophyte isolate V5W2; Rs= *Radopholus similis*. Error bars represent standard errors of the mean, n=15.

Figure 6. Histological analysis of phenolic cells showing brown stained phenolic cells in transverse sections of rhizomes obtained from tissue culture banana plants treated with (A) sterile millet seed (negative control), (B) 50 mM K_2HPO_4 (positive control), (C) *Radopholus similis*, (D) *V5W2*, and (E) *V5W2* and *Radopholus similis* 2 weeks after inoculation with *V5W2* and 1 week after nematode inoculation. Preformed phenolic cells in the cortex region of rhizome sections treated with both *V5W2* and *Radopholus similis* (F).

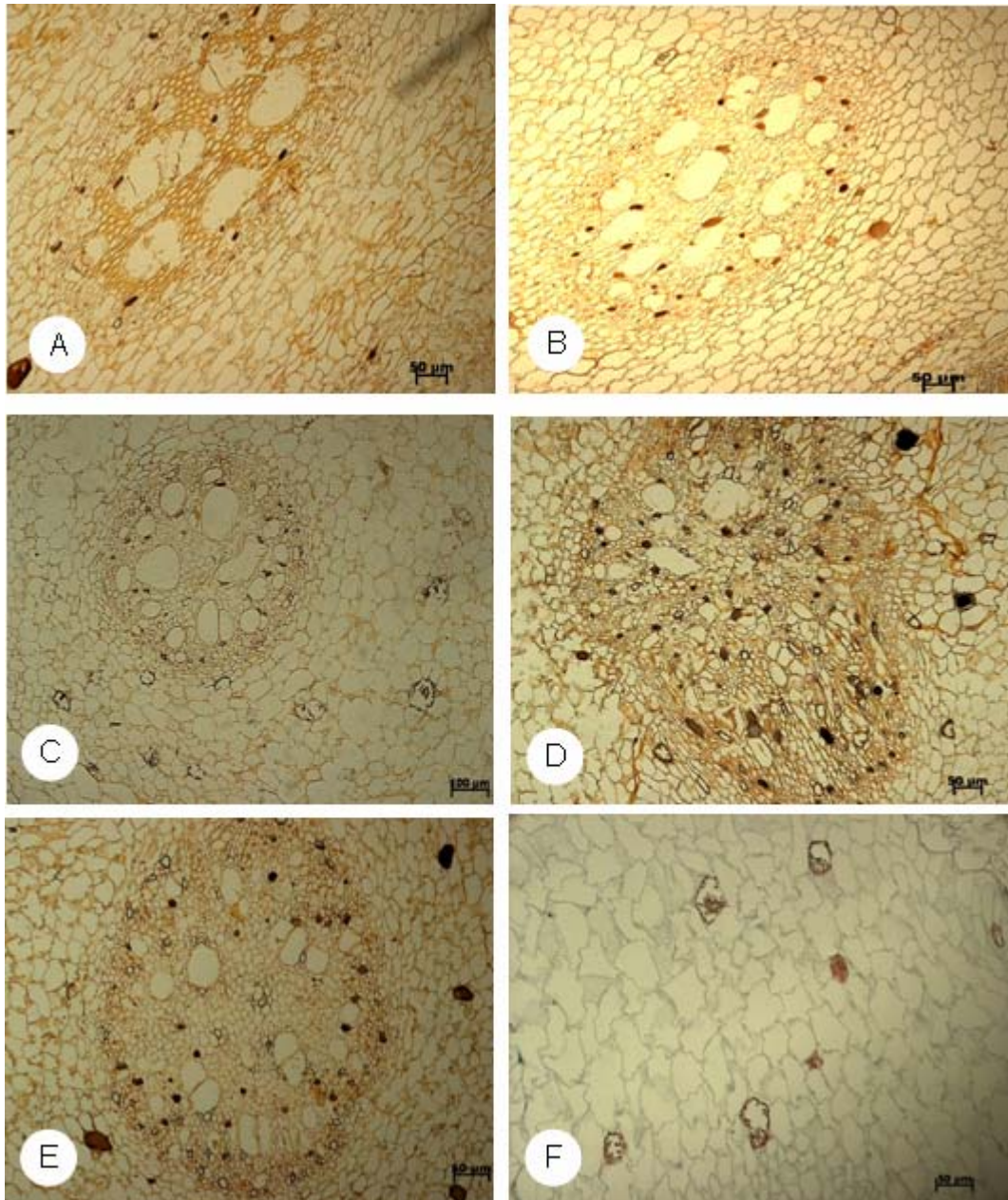
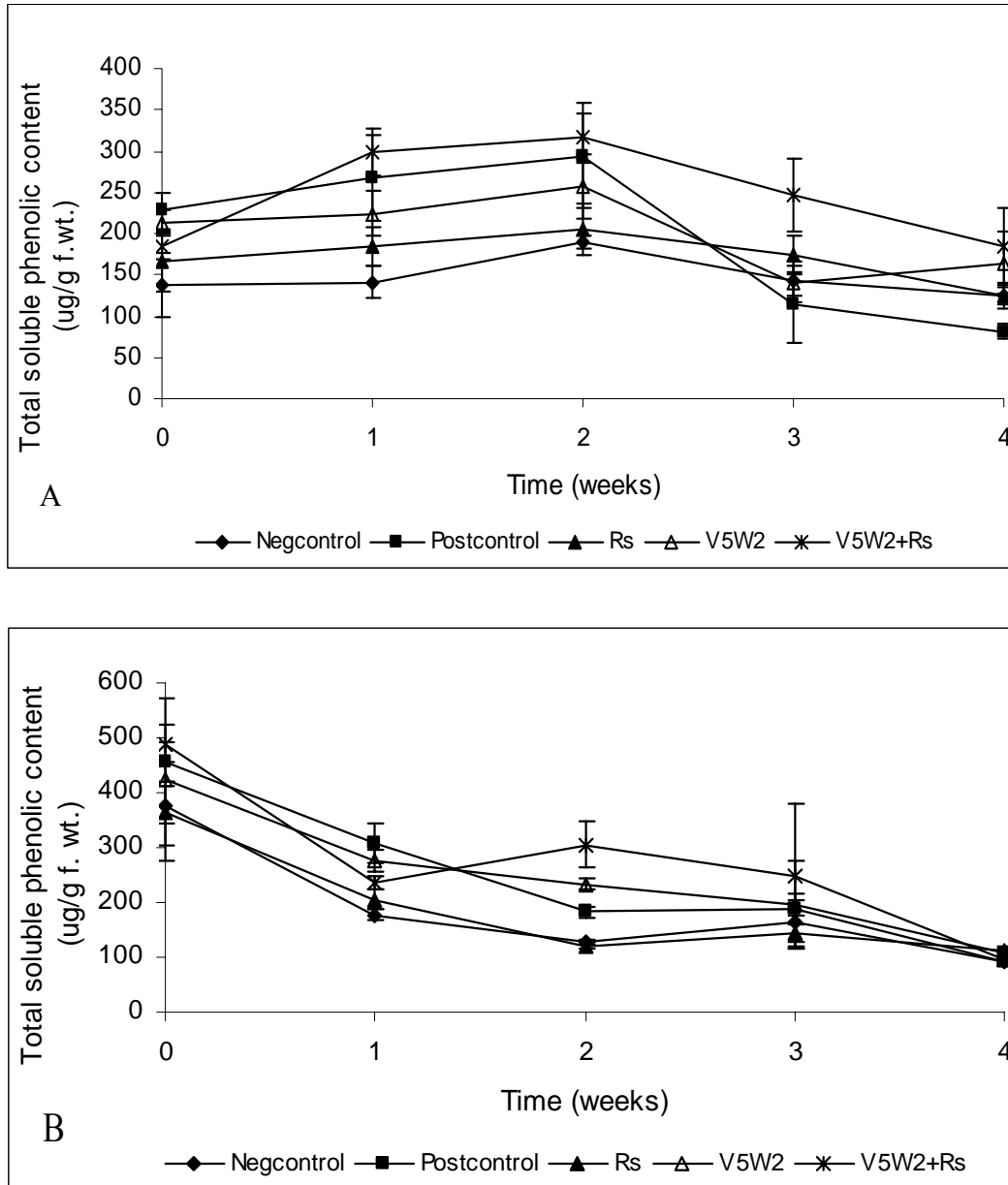


Figure 7. Total soluble phenolics (μg equivalent gallic acid/g fresh weight) in rhizomes (A) and roots (B) of banana plants treated with sterile millet seed (negative control), 50 mM K_2HPO_4 (positive control), *Radopholus similis* only, *Fusarium oxysporum* isolate V5W2 only, and V5W2 and *Radopholus similis*.



Negcontrol=negative control (sterile millet seed); Postcontrol=Positive control (50 mM K_2HPO_4); *Rs*=*Radopholus similis*. Error bars represent standard errors of the mean (n=5).

Figure 8. HPLC chromatograms at 280 nm absorbance of soluble phenolic compounds in rhizome extracts from tissue culture banana plants treated with (A) sterile millet seed, (B) 50 mM K_2HPO_4 , (C) *Radopholus similis*, (D) endophytic *Fusarium oxysporum* isolate V5W2 and (E) both V5W2 and *R. similis*, 2 weeks after endophyte inoculation. Peaks labelled 1-4 are the major compounds that were used for quantitative comparison between treatments.

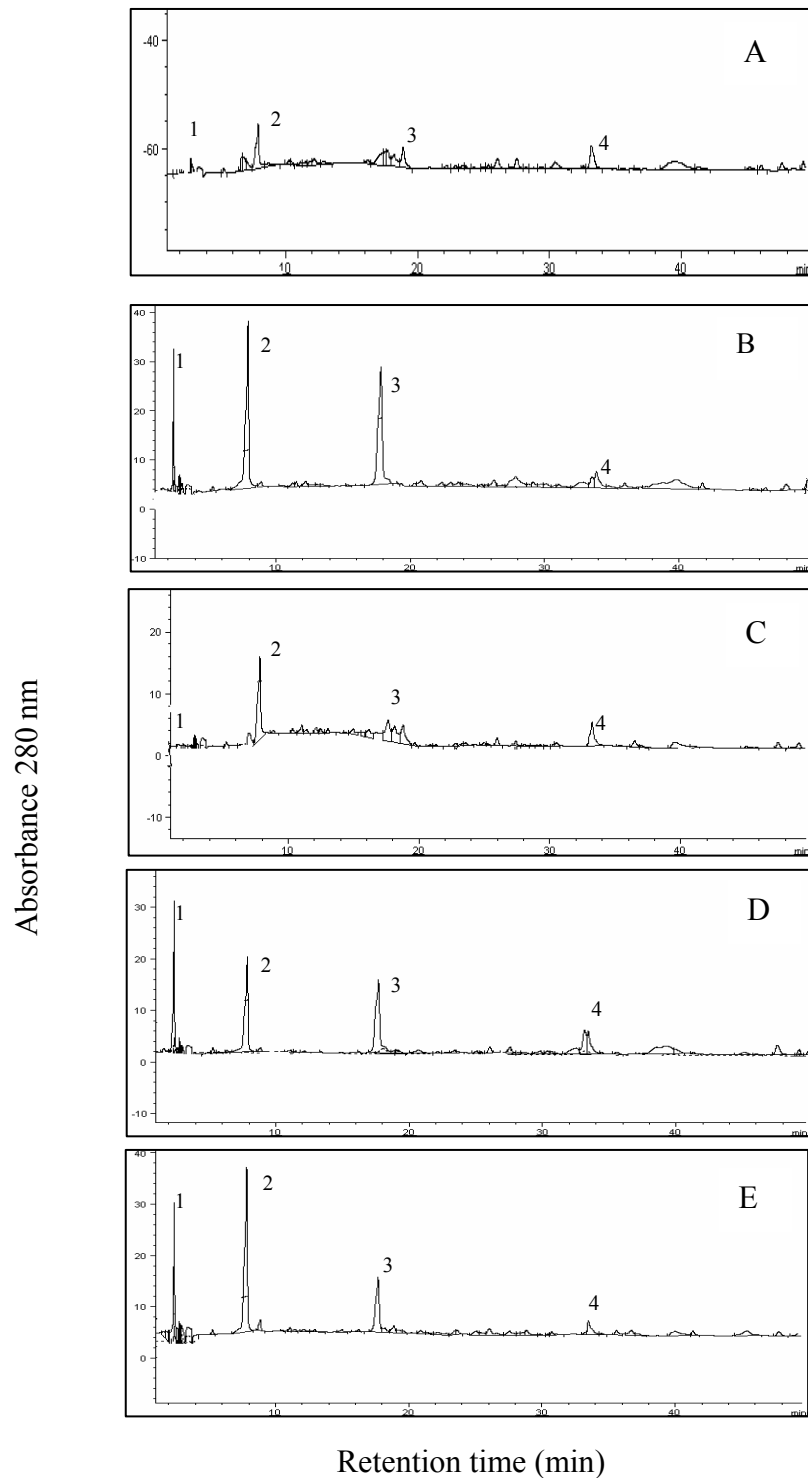
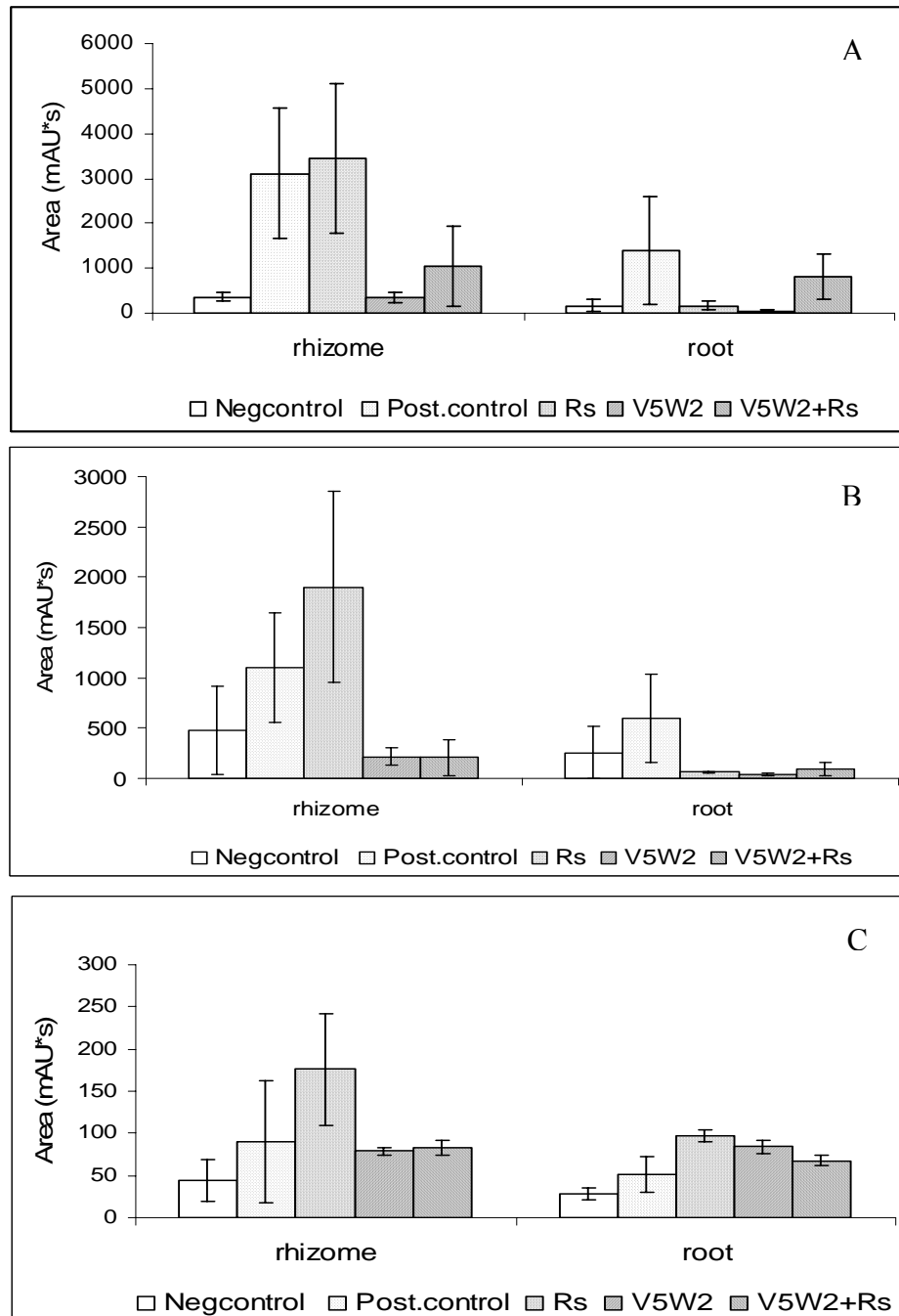


Figure 9. Three unknown compounds in rhizome and root extracts of tissue culture banana plants 2 weeks after inoculation with the endophytic *Fusarium oxysporum* isolate V5W2, and 1 week after inoculation with *Radopholus similis*. (A, unknown compound 2; B, unknown compound 3 and C; unknown compound 4)



Negcontrol=negative control (sterile millet seed); Postcontrol=Positive control (50 mM K₂HPO₄); V5W2=endophyte isolate V5W2; Rs= *Radopholus similis*.

Error bars represent standard errors of the mean, n=3.

Table 1. Number of *Radopholus similis* females, males, juveniles and total nematode density in 100 g roots, and percentage root necrosis in the responder roots, 1 month after inoculation of the inducer roots with endophytic *Fusarium oxysporum* isolates.

	Females	Males	Juveniles	Total*	Necrosis (%)
Experiment 1					
Control	582.8 ± 220.8 a	56.9 ± 18.6 a	2322.7 ± 425.9 a	2962.4 ± 534.0 a	26.6 ± 5.4 a
<i>Eny1.3li</i>	189.7 ± 66.3 (67.4) a	56.3 ± 24.8 (1.1) a	2276.7 ± 652.0 (1.9) a	2522.7 ± 711.4 (14.8) a	28.7 ± 7.1 a
<i>Eny7.11o</i>	364.1 ± 100.3 (35.5) a	76.6 ± 16.9 (34.6) a	1503.1 ± 246.0 (35.2) a	1943.9 ± 297.8 (34.3) a	20.6 ± 3.9 a
<i>V5W2</i>	412.9 ± 168.4 (29.5) a	65.6 ± 29.3 (15.2) a	1613.3 ± 512.0 (30.5) a	2091.8 ± 690.2 (29.4) a	20.7 ± 6.6 a
<i>P Value</i>	0.3475	0.6843	0.6735	0.6693	0.6934
Experiment 2					
Control	693.5 ± 62.7 a	3.5 ± 3.5 a	478.0 ± 48.7 a	1175.1 ± 98.7 a	23.8 ± 3.3 a
<i>Eny1.3li</i>	104.5 ± 26.4 (84.9) c	9.1 ± 4.0 (160.5) a	277.3 ± 72.0 (41.9) ab	390.9 ± 88.8 (66.7) c	28.3 ± 2.9 a
<i>Eny7.11o</i>	247.1 ± 47.6 (64.3) b	6.0 ± 2.7 (69.6) a	613.2 ± 160.2 (28.2) a	866.3 ± 193.6 (26.2) ab	28.5 ± 3.4 a
<i>V5W2</i>	51.0 ± 16.8 (92.6) c	2.7 ± 1.4 (22.7) a	131.7 ± 36.5 (72.5) b	185.3 ± 47.0 (84.2) c	25.6 ± 2.7 a
<i>P Value</i>	<0.0001	0.6843	0.0041	<0.0001	0.6609
Experiment 3					
Control	212.6 ± 53.9 a	116.2 ± 57.0 a	1743.4 ± 548.8 a	2072.2 ± 691.1 a	12.4 ± 1.9 ab
<i>Eny1.3li</i>	137.2 ± 21.5 (35.4) a	72.6 ± 16.7 (37.5) a	746.7 ± 81.8 (57.2) a	956.5 ± 106.0 (53.8) a	12.6 ± 3.2 b
<i>Eny7.11o</i>	186.8 ± 40.6 (12.1) a	87.1 ± 9.7 (25.1) a	1639.4 ± 434.1 (5.96) a	1913.3 ± 477.6 (7.7) a	21.8 ± 2.8 a
<i>V5W2</i>	170.7 ± 63.0 (19.6) a	63.0 ± 29.5 (45.7) a	1085.5 ± 248.1 (37.7) a	1319.2 ± 332.0 (36.4) a	10.1 ± 2.1 b
<i>P Value</i>	0.7473	0.4284	0.1620	0.2048	0.0096

*Total nematode density (females+males+juveniles). In each column within an experiment, means followed by the same letter are not different according to Tukey's studentized range test. Figures in parenthesis are percentage reduction of nematode numbers compared to the control treatment.

Table 2. Known phenolic compounds in rhizome and root extracts of tissue culture banana plants identified by HPLC 2 weeks after inoculation with endophytic *Fusarium oxysporum* isolate *V5W2*.

Compound	Treatment	Amount ($\mu\text{g/ml}$)	
		Corm extracts	Root extracts
3,4-dihydroxybenzoic acid (11.131)	Negative control	2.1 \pm 0.0	49.6 \pm 15.5
	Positive control	29.4 \pm 0.0	19.5 \pm 6.5
	<i>R. similis</i>	106.0 \pm 86.0	48.7 \pm 27.1
	<i>V5W2</i>	16.0 \pm 5.9	22.9 \pm 2.9
	<i>V5W2+R. similis</i>	25.0 \pm 8.9	21.7 \pm 14.5
Ferulic acid (27.521)	Negative control	20.0 \pm 0.0	nd
	Positive control	nd	nd
	<i>R. similis</i>	nd	nd
	<i>V5W2</i>	20.0 \pm 0.0	15.3 \pm 0.0
	<i>V5W2+R. similis</i>	4.7 \pm 0.0	nd
Hydroxybenzoic acid (16.219)	Negative control	nd	nd
	Positive control	20.0 \pm 0.0	nd
	<i>R. similis</i>	nd	20.0 \pm 0.0
	<i>V5W2</i>	20.0 \pm 0.0	nd
	<i>V5W2+R. similis</i>	nd	nd
Syringic acid (18.915)	Negative control	nd	127.6 \pm 124.0
	Positive control	2.2 \pm 0.0	67.6 \pm 0.0
	<i>R. similis</i>	nd	114.2 \pm 60.8
	<i>V5W2</i>	20.0 \pm 0.0	nd
	<i>V5W2+R. similis</i>	91.3 \pm 41.9	20.0 \pm 0.0
Vanillic acid (18.259)	Negative control	20.0 \pm 0.0	23.8 \pm 3.8
	Positive control	nd	39.8 \pm 19.8
	<i>R. similis</i>	20.0 \pm 0.0	44.2 \pm 16.7
	<i>V5W2</i>	20.0 \pm 0.0	22.1 \pm 2.0
	<i>V5W2+R. similis</i>	20.0 \pm 0.0	12.8 \pm 7.1
Gallic acid (6.359)	Negative control	nd	nd
	Positive control	5.86 \pm 0.0	nd
	<i>R. similis</i>	nd	nd
	<i>V5W2</i>	nd	nd
	<i>V5W2+R. similis</i>	nd	nd
<i>p</i> -Coumaric acid (25.305)	Negative control	nd	nd
	Positive control	20.0 \pm 0.0	20.0 \pm 0.0
	<i>R. similis</i>	nd	nd
	<i>V5W2</i>	nd	nd
	<i>V5W2+R. similis</i>	20.0 \pm 0.0	nd

Negative control =sterile millet seed; Positive control=(50 mM K_2HPO_4 ; *V5W2*= *F. oxysporum* endophyte isolate; Rs=*Radopholus similis*. Values represent the mean and standard error of the mean (n=3). Figures in brackets below each compound represent the retention time. nd= not detected.

Chapter 6

Genetic diversity of endophytic *Fusarium* spp. associated with Cavendish banana in South Africa

Abstract

Endophytic *Fusarium* spp. are commonly associated with banana plants. Nothing is known regarding tissue specificity and the genetic diversity within endophytic *Fusarium* spp. from banana plants. Endophytic *Fusarium* spp. from roots, rhizomes and pseudostem bases of Cavendish banana plants from three sites in South Africa were assessed using morphological and molecular analyses. *Fusarium oxysporum* was the predominant species isolated, followed by *Fusarium solani* and *Fusarium semitectum*. Tissue specificity was observed with *F. oxysporum* and *F. solani* being predominantly isolated from the roots whilst *F. semitectum*, *F. sacchari* and *Fusarium subglutinans* were predominantly isolated from rhizomes and pseudostem bases. PCR-RFLP analysis of the IGS region of the rDNA divided 46 isolates of *F. oxysporum* obtained from roots into nine different genotype groups. Distance analysis of AFLP data of 57 *Fusarium* isolates resolved the isolates into two major clades: one consisting of the isolated *F. oxysporum* and the other of *F. sacchari*. The *F. solani* isolates formed three clades clearly separated from the other two species. *Fusarium oxysporum* isolates further grouped according to plant part origin while the *F. sacchari* and *F. solani* isolates grouped randomly. The results obtained demonstrate tissue specificity of endophytic *Fusarium* in Cavendish banana and also a wide inter- and intraspecific genetic variation among endophytic *Fusarium* isolates of banana in South Africa.

Introduction

Endophytes are microorganisms that spend at least part of their life cycle inside plant tissues without causing any apparent disease symptoms (Carroll, 1988). The presence of endophytic fungi has been demonstrated in many plants including important agricultural crops like banana (Brown *et al.*, 1998; Pereira *et al.*, 1999; Pocasangre *et al.*, 1999; Dubois *et al.*, 2004), maize (Fisher *et al.*, 1992), rice (Fisher and Petrini, 1992) and tomato (Hallman and Sikora, 1994). Fungal endophytes are known to produce bioactive products that may play important ecological and biological roles in the host plant (Tan and Zhou, 2001; Strobel, 2003; Schulz and Boyle, 2005). In mutualistic associations, endophyte-infected plants are protected from attack by some insects, nematodes and fungi, while in return the endophyte is provided with shelter and nutrition by the host plant (Latch, 1993; Saikkonen *et al.*, 1998; Azevedo *et al.*, 2000; Schardl *et al.*, 2004).

Fusarium spp. are cosmopolitan fungi that contain many pathogenic forms causing diseases to a wide variety of economically important crops, such as banana (Stover, 1981). The genus also comprises nonpathogenic strains, some of which occur as endophytes colonizing different plant tissues (Niere, 2001; Tan and Zhou, 2001; Sikora *et al.*, 2003). Several researchers have reported association between endophytic *Fusarium* and banana plants (Pereira *et al.*, 1999; Pocasangre *et al.*, 1999; Dubois *et al.*, 2004). *Fusarium oxysporum* has been identified as the predominant species establishing endophytic relationships with banana plants. The ability of endophytic *F. oxysporum* isolates to protect banana plants against pests and diseases has been demonstrated in laboratory and screen house experiments (Pocasangre *et al.*, 1999; Dubois *et al.*, 2004; Gold and Dubois 2005, Nel *et al.*, 2006b). Thus, mutualistic associations between endophytic *Fusarium* spp. and banana plants may be viewed as a promising form of biological protection.

The international banana trade is dominated by the Cavendish-type bananas (INIBAP, 2003). Apart from the export trade, Cavendish bananas are grown in many other countries for local consumption only. Opportunities for improving production of Cavendish bananas are often constrained by pests and diseases. The main pests are the banana weevil *Cosmopolites sordidus* and the banana nematode *Radopholus similis* (Daneel *et al.*, 2004; de Graaf *et al.*, 2004). The main diseases of Cavendish bananas are Fusarium wilt (Panama disease) caused by *Fusarium oxysporum* f. sp. *cubense* (Moore *et al.*, 1995) and black

Sigatoka, caused by *Mycosphaerella fijiensis* (Mourichon *et al.*, 1997; Surridge *et al.*, 2003). These pests and diseases are difficult and costly to control, and can amount to yield losses of up to 100% of severely infested fields (Moore *et al.*, 1995; Mourichon *et al.*, 1997).

Genetic diversity exists between and within pathogenic and nonpathogenic populations of *F. oxysporum*, and various molecular methods can be used to detect such variation (Gordon and Okamoto 1991; Edel *et al.*, 1995). The amplification of variable ribosomal DNA (rDNA) regions allows for discrimination at the genus, species and intraspecific level (Edel *et al.*, 1995). Of particular importance is the intergenic spacer (IGS) region that shows considerable divergence within closely related species (Appel and Gordon 1994; 1995). The use of PCR amplified rDNA regions as substrates for restriction fragment length polymorphisms (RFLPs) is one of the widely used methods use to evaluate genetic diversity in *F. oxysporum* populations. By using PCR-RFLP analysis of the IGS region, Woo *et al.* (1996) identified genetic differences between worldwide collections of pathogenic and nonpathogenic isolates of *F. oxysporum* of the bean wilt pathogen *F. oxysporum* f. sp. *phaseoli*. Appel and Gordon (1995) were able to resolve intraspecific variation among 56 soil isolates of *F. oxysporum*, and Nel *et al.* (2006a) reported variation among isolates of *F. oxysporum* from the banana rhizosphere. Several researchers have also reported genetic diversity of endophytic *F. oxysporum* from various plants based on analysis of the IGS region. In addition, diversity among endophytic isolates of *F. oxysporum* from symptomless tomato roots (Elias *et al.*, 1991) and from roots and hypocotyls of beans (Alves-Santos *et al.*, 1999) was demonstrated.

Amplified fragment length polymorphism (AFLP) is based on the selective amplification of a high number of restriction fragments and is highly reproducible (Vos *et al.*, 1995). It is also useful in delineating genetic differences between and within species (Vos *et al.*, 1995). For example, AFLPs were shown to relate five distinct clusters with five different *Fusarium* taxa in a phylogenetic study (Abdel-Satar *et al.*, 2003). Groenewald *et al.* (2006) further demonstrated that AFLPs could be used to subdivide *F. oxysporum* f.sp. *cubense* in several different clades which correspond to vegetative compatibility. Inter- and intraspecific variation obtained with AFLPs can also be used to construct genetic markers for different microorganisms (Kema *et al.*, 2002).

Despite the known association of banana plants with endophytic *Fusarium* spp. genetic diversity of these endophytes, and their relation to different plant parts has been poorly

studied. The objectives of this study were, therefore, to isolate and identify endophytic *Fusarium* spp. from field-grown Cavendish bananas, to examine the tissue specificity of such *Fusarium* spp., and to determine the genetic diversity within these *Fusarium* endophytes of banana.

Materials and methods

Collection of plant material

Fresh root, rhizome and pseudostem base samples were collected from apparently healthy Cavendish banana plants growing in banana weevil- and nematode-infested plantations in Ramsgate, KwaZulu-Natal (KZN) province and Tzaneen, Limpopo province of South Africa in May and June, 2003 respectively. Neither of these plantations were affected by Fusarium wilt of banana. Five and 10 plants were sampled from Ramsgate and Tzaneen, respectively. From each plant, five 10-cm-long primary roots and five 100-cm³ pieces of the rhizomes and pseudostem bases were randomly taken. Samples were packed in polythene bags, placed in cooler boxes and transported to the Forestry and Agricultural Biotechnology Institute (FABI), located at the University of Pretoria in South Africa, for isolation of endophytic *Fusarium* spp.

Isolation of endophytic Fusarium spp.

Roots were washed under running tap water to remove adhering soil, and surface sterilized in 75 % ethanol for 1 min followed by 2 % sodium hypochlorite solution for 30 s (Petrini, 1986), followed by a double rinse in sterile distilled water (SDW). After rinsing, the samples were dried by blotting them on sterile tissue paper. From each surface sterilized root, five 1-cm long pieces were randomly cut and placed on *Fusarium*-specific rose bengal agar (12 g agar, 10 ml glycerine, 0.5 g L-alanine, 1.0 g pentachloronitrobenzene, 0.5 g Rose Bengal and 1.0 g urea / L SDW) in 65-mm-diameter Petri dishes. The medium was amended with 0.25 g l⁻¹ chloramphenicol to prevent bacterial growth. The pseudostem bases, inner and outer rhizome samples from each plant, were surface sterilized by dipping in 95% ethanol, followed by flaming. From each surface sterilized pseudostem base, inner and outer rhizome sample, five 1-cm³ pieces were randomly removed using a flamed scalpel blade, and also

placed on rose bengal medium amended with antibiotics. All Petri dishes were incubated at 25 °C and checked for fungal growth for 7 days. All colonies of putative *Fusarium* spp. were sub-cultured on half strength potato dextrose agar (19 g PDA, 8 agar / L SDW) (PDA, Difco, Detroit, USA) and incubated for 7 days at 25 °C.

Morphological identification of Fusarium spp.

Single-spore cultures were prepared for all *Fusarium* colonies according to Nelson *et al.* (1983). From the single-spore cultures, mycelial disks were transferred to carnation leaf agar (CLA) and half strength PDA in 65-mm and 90-mm diameter Petri dishes, respectively. CLA was prepared by placing a dry sterile carnation leaf on 2 % water agar (Nelson and Toussoun 1986). The cultures on CLA medium were incubated for 7 to 28 days at 25 °C before being examined for conidium and conidiophore morphology, and chlamydospore production. Cultures on half strength PDA were examined for growth rates and morphological characteristics such as colony appearance (presence or absence of aerial mycelia, surface texture, and pigmentation) after incubation at 25 °C for 10 days. Identification of *Fusarium* isolates to species level was done according to Nelson *et al.* (1983). Only one isolate for each *Fusarium* species recovered per root, rhizomes or pseudostem base tissue per plant was preserved for further analysis to limit duplication of isolates. Isolates were preserved on sterile filter papers and also in 15 % glycerol and stored at 4 °C and –80 °C respectively. All the isolates used in this study are maintained in the FABI culture collection.

Statistical analysis of data

Isolation frequencies of different *Fusarium* spp. among plant parts and between geographic origins were analyzed using categorical logistic regression. Only species for which more than one isolate was obtained were included in the analysis. Likelihood ratio tests were performed to investigate differences within factors (site, *Fusarium* sp. and plant part). If different, means were separated using 95 % confidence intervals and significant α levels of 0.0051 after the Dunn-Sidak correction (Sokal and Rolf 1995; Ury, 1976) using the SAS system (SAS, 1989).

*Molecular characterization of Fusarium spp.**DNA extraction from fungal mycelia*

To obtain DNA, single spore isolates of *Fusarium* were grown at 25 °C on PDA medium in 65-mm-diameter Petri dishes for 7 days. Fungal mycelium was scrapped from the surface of the medium using a flame-sterilized scapel and transferred into 1.5-ml Eppendorf tubes. DNA was extracted according to Raeder and Broda (1985). To each tube, 300 µl of DNA extraction buffer (200 mM Tris/HCl (pH 8.0), 150 mM NaCl, 25 mM EDTA (pH 8.0), 0.5% SDS in SDW) was added. The mycelium was homogenised in the extraction buffer with a pestle and frozen in liquid nitrogen. The cell lysate was extracted with 700 µl of phenol-chloroform (1:1 v/v) and centrifuged at 14000 rpm for 7 min at 4 °C. The supernatant was then transferred to new tubes and the extraction procedure repeated three more times. To the final supernatant (~250 µl), 25 µl of 3 M sodium acetate (pH 5.5) and 500 µl of ice cold 100 % ethanol were added, and the mixture centrifuged at 14000 rpm for 10 min at 4°C to yield the DNA pellet. The DNA pellet was washed with 70 % ethanol and dried *in vacuo* for 5 min at 45°C, redissolved in 60 µl TE buffer (10 mM Tris/HCl (pH 8.0) and 1 mM EDTA (pH 8.0) in SDW) and treated with RNase (Sigma-Aldrich, MO, USA) to degrade RNA. The DNA concentrations were determined using a spectrophotometer and diluted to a final working concentration of 20 ng µl⁻¹.

Sequence analysis

Part of the transfer elongation factor 1- α (TEF) region of selected isolates was amplified using the Efl and Ef2 primers (O'Donell *et al.*, 1998). The PCR reaction conditions were as follows; initial denaturation of 2 min at 94 °C, followed by 35 cycles of 30 s at 94 °C, 45 s at 60 °C, 90 s at 72 °C and a final extension of 5 min at 72 °C. PCR reactions were carried out in a mastercycler (Eppendorf, Hamburg, Germany). The resulting amplicons were electrophoresed in 1% TBE agarose gels and visualized using ethidium bromide staining and UV light. The amplified DNA fragments were purified using a High Pure PCR Product Purification kit (Roche Diagnostics, Johannesburg, South Africa) according to the manufacturers instructions. Sequencing was performed in 10 µl reactions each containing 4 µl of purified PCR products, 1 µl of Efl or Ef2, 2 µl of Big dye III (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA), 1 µl 5x dilution buffer and 2-µl dH₂O. PCR conditions were 25 cycles of 10 s at 96 °C, 5 s at 50 °C and 4 min at 60 °C. Sequencing products were

precipitated and electrophoresed using an ABI Prism 3100 Genetic Analyzer (Applied Biosystems). The obtained sequences were edited and aligned using the Sequence Navigator software program (Applied Biosystems). Final alignments were done manually and the sequences compared with GenBank sequence databases using nucleotide Blast on the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) website.

PCR-RFLP analysis of the IGS region of F. oxysporum isolates

All *F. oxysporum* isolates obtained from banana roots were subjected to PCR-RFLP analyses in order to group them into IGS genotypes for subsequent AFLP analyses of a smaller, representative number of isolates. Two oligonucleotide primers, forward primer PNFo (5' CCCGCCTGGCTGCGTCCGACTC 3') and reverse primer PN22 (5' CAAGCATATGACTACTGGC 3') were used to amplify a fragment of the IGS region of the rDNA (Edel *et al.*, 1995). The primers were synthesized by Inqaba Biotechnical Industries (Hatfield, Pretoria, South Africa). PCR amplifications were performed in a total volume of 50 µl by mixing 50 ng of template DNA with 0.1 µM of each primer, 2.5 mM of each of dATP, dCTP, dGTP and dTTP, 1 unit *Taq* DNA polymerase and 1x PCR reaction buffer (10 mM Tris/HCl [pH 9.0], 50 mM KCl, 1.5 mM MgCl₂, 0.1% Triton X-100, 0.2 mg/ml of bovine serum albumin in dH₂O) (Roche Diagnostics). Amplifications were performed in a mastercycler (Eppendorf) with 30 cycles of 90 s at 95 °C, 60 s at 50 °C and 90 s at 72 °C. Five microliters of PCR products was used to verify successful amplification of DNA by electrophoresis in 2% (w/v) agarose gels in 1x TAE buffer for 1 hr at 80 V. Aliquots of 10 µl of PCR products were digested for 4 hrs at 37 °C with 5 units of each of four restriction endonucleases: *Hae*III, *Hin*fI, *Msp*I and *Rsa*I (Roche Diagnostics). Restriction fragments were separated by electrophoresis in 4% agarose gels in 1x TAE buffer for 1 hr at 60 V. Fragments were run against a 100 base pair (bp) molecular marker for size estimation. Each unique banding pattern obtained with the different enzymes was assigned a letter, and each isolate assigned a composite IGS genotype defined by a combination of the patterns (letters) obtained with the four enzymes (Appel and Gordon, 1995).

AFLP analysis of Fusarium spp.

A total of 57 *Fusarium* spp. isolates from three banana-growing regions (Ramsgate, Tzaneen and Kiepersol in the Mpumalanga province) in South Africa were studied. Of these, 31 and 16 isolates were obtained from banana plants in Tzaneen and Ramsgate in the current study, respectively. Ten isolates previously collected from symptomless banana plants in *Fusarium* wilt-suppressive soils in Kiepersol, were obtained from the culture collection at FABI and included in the AFLP analysis. Isolates from Kiepersol had been confirmed as nonpathogenic to banana. Of the 57 isolates, 34 were *F. oxysporum*, 8 were *Fusarium solani*, 14 were *Fusarium sacchari* and 1 *Fusarium. equiseti* (Table 1).

A high-throughput AFLP analysis procedure using infrared dye-labeled primers and an automated DNA analyzer was used (Myburg *et al.*, 2001). The restriction, ligation and preamplification reactions were performed as described by Vos *et al.* (1995). Genomic DNA (20 ng) was digested with two units each of *EcoRI* and *MseI* (Roche Diagnostics) and incubated for 3 hr at 37 °C. For adaptor ligation, 30 µl of digested DNA was added to 10 µl of the restriction-ligation buffer (50 pmol/µl of *MseI* adaptor, 5 pmol/µl of *EcoRI* adaptor and one unit of DNA ligase) and incubated for 3 hr at 37 °C. Restriction-ligation mixtures were diluted 10-fold with low TE buffer (10 mM Tris/HCl (pH 8.0), 0.1 mM EDTA (pH 8.0) in dH₂O) to serve as a template for preamplification. Preamplification reactions were performed in a total volume of 30 µl containing: 5 µl of diluted restriction-ligation products, 0.6 units *Taq* polymerase, 3 µl PCR reaction buffer, 0.3 µM of *EcoRI* and *MseI* primer without any additional selective nucleotides, and 2.5 mM of each of the four dNTPs. The PCR program consisted of 25 cycles of 30 s at 72 °C, 30 s at 94 °C, 30 s at 56 °C and 1 min at 72 °C, with an additional 1 s per cycle increase in the extension time. Electrophoresis to verify successful preamplification was carried out in 1.2% agarose gels in 0.5x TBE for 1.5 hr at 60 V. Depending on the intensity of the smear, preamplification products were diluted either 10- or 20-fold with low TE buffer and served as the templates for the final amplification step.

Three primer combinations were used for final selective amplification. The *EcoRI* primers were 5'-end labeled with infrared dye IRDye™ 700 or 800 (LI-COR). The primer combinations used were *EcoRI*-AT / *MseI*-CC, *EcoRI*-CC / *MseI*-TA and *EcoRI*-TC / *MseI*-AA. Final amplifications were performed in a total volume of 20 µl containing 5 µl diluted preamplification product, 2 µl PCR reaction buffer, 1.6 µl of 2.5 mM of each of the four

dNTPs, 0.04 μ M IRDye 700-labeled *EcoRI* primer or 0.04 μ M IRDye 800-labelled *EcoRI* primer, 0.25 μ M *MseI* primer and 1.2 units *Taq* polymerase. A total of 37 amplification cycles were carried out. The first amplification cycle was carried out for 10 s at 90 °C, 30 s at 65 °C and 1 min at 72 °C. In each of the following 12 cycles, the annealing temperature was reduced by 0.7 °C per cycle. The last 23 cycles were carried out for 10 s at 94 °C, 30 s at 56 °C and 1 min, extended 1 s per cycle, at 72 °C. A final extension cycle was carried out for 1 min at 72 °C. All amplification steps were carried out in a mastercycler (Eppendorf).

Electrophoresis and detection of AFLP fragments

Electrophoresis and detection of AFLP fragments was performed on a two-dye automated DNA sequencer Model 4200s (LI-COR, Lincoln, NE, USA). AFLP fragments were resolved in 25 cm gels containing 8% polyacrylamide gel solution (Long Ranger Gel Solution, Cambrex Bioscience, Rockland, USA), 7.0 M urea and 1x TBE buffer. Ten microliters of formamide loading buffer (95% deionised formamide, 20 mM EDTA, 1 mg/ml Bromophenol blue and 0.5 ml dH₂O) was added to 20 μ l final AFLP products in 0.2 ml PCR tubes and the tubes wrapped in aluminum foil. All samples were denatured for 3 min at 90 °C and transferred to ice before loading. Disposable 64-well paper combs (KB^{Plus}, LI-COR) (0.25 mm spacer thickness) were used for gel loading. 0.8 μ l of each of the diluted preamplification products was loaded into a single lane. The first and last lanes of the gels were loaded with a denatured 50-700 bp molecular weight marker labeled with the corresponding infrared dye (LI-COR). Gel images were transferred automatically from the DNA analyzer to the Saga Application server (LI-COR) where analyses and band scoring were performed.

Scoring of AFLP images

Digital AFLP gel images were scored to obtain binary (band presence or absence) data using Saga^{MX} automated AFLP analysis software (Keygene, Wageningen, the Netherlands). Lane definition and band sizing were performed as described in the Saga^{MX} user manual. Semi-automated scoring was performed by manually clicking on polymorphic fragments present or absent in any of the 60 lanes. After scoring, data were exported directly to a spreadsheet program and reformatted for use in mapping software. Binary data (0 = absence, 1 = presence) obtained from band scores of the gel images obtained with the three different primer pairs was combined. The combined AFLP data was subjected to distance analysis

using the Phylogenetic Analysis Using Parsimony (PAUP) Version 4.0 b10 (Swofford 2002) software (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA) which included neighbour joining as a tree building algorithm and a bootstrap of a 1000 replicates (Felsenstein, 1985) for confidence support. The *F. equiseti* isolate was used as the outgroup.

Results

Isolation frequencies of endophytic Fusarium spp. from Cavendish banana plants

The frequency of isolation and diversity of endophytic *Fusarium* spp. was assessed in roots, rhizomes and pseudostem bases of healthy Cavendish banana plants. We isolated a total of 140 isolates belonging to eight *Fusarium* species. Of these 140 isolates, 57.2% were from the roots, 22.7% from the rhizomes, and 19.9% were obtained from the pseudostem bases. *Fusarium oxysporum* was isolated at the highest frequency among the endophytic *Fusarium* isolates. Other *Fusarium* spp. that were isolated included, in decreasing frequencies, *F. solani*, *F. semitectum*, *F. sacchari*, *F. subglutinans*, *F. dimerum*, *F. equiseti* and *F. proliferatum* (Table 2). Mixed infections from an individual plant were common; as many as six different *Fusarium* spp. were found in a single plant. The highest number of *Fusarium* species recovered from a single plant was four and six in Ramsgate and Tzaneen, respectively. From the isolations, an individual *Fusarium* species could be recovered from all plants within one site; *F. oxysporum* and *F. solani* were found in all plants from Ramsgate and Tzaneen, respectively.

The frequency of isolation of different *Fusarium* spp. was influenced by the plant part ($P<0.0001$) and geographic site ($P<0.0001$) from which they were isolated. The frequency of isolation of different endophytic *Fusarium* species also differed within plant parts; roots ($P<0.0001$), rhizomes ($P=0.0115$) and pseudostem bases ($P=0.0301$). A strong interaction between species frequency and plant part ($P<0.0001$) was observed. *Fusarium oxysporum* and *F. solani* were predominantly isolated from the roots, *F. semitectum* and *F. sacchari*, from rhizomes and *F. subglutinans* from pseudostem bases. The composition of different *Fusarium* species differed significantly within geographic sites (Ramsgate, $P<0.0001$ and Tzaneen, $P<0.0001$) with a strong interaction between species composition and geographic site ($P=0.0127$). In Ramsgate, *F. oxysporum* was the most frequently isolated species while in Tzaneen, *F. oxysporum* and *F. solani* were recovered at the highest frequencies. *Fusarium*

sacchari, *F. semitectum* and *F. subglutinans* were also found in higher frequencies in banana plants from Tzaneen than from banana plants from Ramsgate.

Molecular characterization of endophytic Fusarium spp.

Sequence analysis of the TEF 1- α region of selected Fusarium isolates

PCR amplification of a part of the transfer elongation factor 1- α (TEF) of selected isolates using the Ef1 and Ef2 primers yielded a fragment of ~700 bp. The obtained sequences were used to confirm morphological species identification and have been submitted to GenBank, Accession numbers DQ465925 – DQ465954 (Table 1).

PCR-RFLP analysis of the IGS region of Fusarium oxysporum isolates

A fragment of approximately 1.7 kbp was amplified from each of the 46 isolates of *F. oxysporum* obtained from banana roots in Ramsgate. Depending on the restriction enzyme used, 1-5 distinct restriction fragment patterns were obtained. Five patterns were realized for *HaeIII*, three for *MspI*, two for *RsaI* and one for *HinfI* (Fig. 1). Among the 46 isolates of *F. oxysporum*, a total of 9 IGS genotype groups were identified (Table 3). Isolates from each site generally clustered within the same IGS genotype, although some isolates from the different sites shared the same IGS genotypes. The most common IGS genotype, AAAA, included 10 isolates from Ramsgate and 16 isolates from Tzaneen. Five genotypes out of the nine contained isolates only from Ramsgate. One genotype contained isolates only from Tzaneen and three genotypes contained isolates from both sites (Table 3). Depending on the number of isolates within a particular IGS genotype, a total of 19 representative isolates were selected for further analysis using AFLPs (Table 3). Seven were from genotype 1, three from genotype 5, two each from genotypes 3 and 9, and one each from genotypes 2, 4, 6, 7 and 8.

AFLP analysis of Fusarium spp.

AFLP analysis of *Fusarium* spp. from banana roots, corms and pseudostem bases, using three primer combinations, produced approximately 150 polymorphic bands useful for comparison of genetic diversity. Distance analyses of the AFLP data obtained with the three primer pairs clearly divided the isolates into two distinct clades, one comprising of *F.*

oxysporum isolates and the second comprising of *F. sacchari* isolates. The *F. solani* isolates did not group into one distinct clade, but rather formed two clades, which were clearly separated from the *F. oxysporum* and *F. sacchari* clades (Fig. 2).

The clade comprising of *F. oxysporum* isolates was further divided into 3 distinct sub clades. The clustering of *F. oxysporum* isolates was closely related to the plant part origin than to geographic origin. The first 2 sub-clades comprised of isolates obtained from the roots while the third sub-clade comprised of isolates from the rhizomes and pseudostem bases. Within the root isolates sub-clade, *F. oxysporum* isolates from Kiepersol (sub-clade 2) clearly formed a distinct group while the *F. oxysporum* isolates from Ramsgate and Tzaneen clustered randomly within sub-clades 1 and 3. The *F. oxysporum* isolates obtained from roots were found to be highly diverse as shown in the cladogram where several sub-clades were formed (Fig. 2). The *F. sacchari* clade was further divided into 2 sub-clades, all isolates in the two sub-clades were obtained from the rhizomes and pseudostem bases except for isolate SAT22, which was obtained from roots and which grouped separately from the other isolates. The *F. solani* isolates grouped into two distinct sub-clades with no correlation to plant part or geographic origin. One *F. solani* isolate (SAK39) was separated from the rest of the isolates clades.

Discussion

Cavendish banana plants in South Africa host a wide array of fungal endophytes. The isolation of a total of 140 isolates belonging to eight different *Fusarium* spp. from roots, rhizomes and pseudostem bases from only 15 Cavendish banana plants in two sites demonstrates the richness of *Fusarium* endophytes and compares favorably to results from earlier investigations involving fungal endophytes of banana. In Thailand, a total of 285 fungal endophytes belonging to 15 different genera were isolated from 49 banana plants of the cv. 'Pisang-Awak' (*Musa* spp. ABB) in nine sites (Niere, 2001). Of these, 79 were isolates of *Fusarium* species. High levels of endophytic fungal diversity from recently harvested plants of East African highland banana, which showed little or no weevil damage in western Uganda, have also been reported (Griesbach, 2000), while a similar study conducted on bananas in central America showed extensive endophytic fungal diversity (Pocasangre *et al.*, 1999). Though the current study focused only on endophytic *Fusarium* spp. infecting Cavendish banana plants, the results obtained here and in earlier studies indicate that banana plants are a rich source of fungal endophytes. The role of endophytes in the host plant however remains largely unknown but may have an ecological and biological significance. It has been speculated that since endophytic fungi establish intimate relationships with their host plants, they may therefore, be effective in the management of the major banana pests and pathogens at the site of attack. Introduction of fungal endophytes into tissue culture derived banana plantlets may also be done to enhance the plant's vigor and provide protection against pests and diseases prior to field planting (Pereira *et al.*, 1999; Griesbach, 2000; Niere, 2001; Sikora *et al.*, 2003).

Fusarium oxysporum, *F. solani*, *F. semitectum* and *F. sacchari* were the most frequently isolated of *Fusarium* spp. from Cavendish bananas in South Africa. All three species can be fungal pathogens of agricultural crops, but only *F. oxysporum* is known to attack bananas (Booth, 1971). Non-pathogenic isolates of *F. oxysporum* have been reported as endophytes of banana before, and have been assessed for their ability to reduce damage caused by pathogenic isolates of *F. oxysporum* and nematodes (Niere, 2001; Pocasangre *et al.*, 1999; Nel *et al.*, 2006b). *Fusarium solani* and *F. semitectum* are pathogens of crops such as cotton and sorghum (Ciegler *et al.*, 1982; Saubois *et al.*, 1999), respectively whilst *F. sacchari* is a pathogen of sugarcane (Ganguly, 1964; Rao and Agnihotri, 2000). Because of the frequency of their isolation, and the tissue that they were isolated from, it is possible that these three

species may have important mutualistic relationships with banana. Interestingly, endophytic isolates of *F. sacchari* from sugarcane have been shown to inhibit development of the sugarcane borer moth *in vitro* (Mc Farlane and Rutherford, 2005). Since *F. sacchari* is non-pathogenic to banana, the role of this fungus in the plant remains unknown and requires further investigation.

In the current study, we obtained more isolates of *Fusarium* spp. from banana roots than from rhizomes or pseudostem bases. These results are in agreement with other studies in which roots appear to harbor more endophytic fungi than other plant parts (Niere, 2001), which may indicate that the roots are potentially colonized by fungi from the soil. *Fusarium oxysporum* was the dominant species found in the roots and *F. semitectum* and *F. sacchari* in rhizomes of Cavendish bananas. Similarly, *F. oxysporum* was found to be the most dominant species in roots and *F. semitectum* in rhizomes of the banana cv. 'Pisang-Awak' (Niere, 2001). Photita *et al.* (2001) reported presence of lower numbers of endophytic fungal isolates from pseudostems in comparison to the veins, interveins and midribs of wild banana plants in Thailand. Differences in the isolation frequencies and the interaction observed between *Fusarium* spp. and different plant parts indicate that endophytic *Fusarium* spp. might be adapted to different banana plant parts. Tissue specificity of endophytic fungi has been reported for conifer needles (Carroll and Carroll 1978), and may be due to the adaptation by particular endophytes to the micro-ecological and physiological conditions present in the different plant organs (Petrini, 1996). Tissue specificity may also be a reflection of tissue preferences of individual dominating taxa (Rodrigues and Samuels 1990). The observed tissue specificity of various *Fusarium* endophytes may be used in biological control programs to target establishment of the endophytes most suited to the plants parts that require protection.

PCR-RFLP analyses grouped endophytic *F. oxysporum* isolates obtained from banana roots from Ramsgate and Tzaneen into 9 IGS genotypes. Although PCR-RFLP may not be the most suitable method to study genetic diversity, it has been used in several studies to resolve genetic differences among *F. oxysporum* strains (Appel and Gordon 1995; Nel *et al.*, 2006a). In the current investigation, the PCR-RFLP technique was useful in identifying genetic differences among *F. oxysporum* isolates obtained from the roots and aided in selecting representative isolates for further AFLP analyses. In previous investigations using IGS-RFLP, 120 isolates of *F. oxysporum* from roots and hypocotyls of beans were grouped into

four haplotypes (Alves-Santos *et al.*, 1999). Similarly, Appel and Gordon (1995) grouped 56 isolates of *F. oxysporum* into 13 IGS haplotypes.

In the current study, IGS genotypes that occurred at highest frequencies contained isolates from both collection sites, while groups that consisted solely of isolates from either of the two sites occurred at low frequencies. The greater number of IGS genotypes found in Ramsgate, compared to those in Tzaneen, despite being isolated from fewer plants, indicates a greater genetic diversity within isolates from Ramsgate. One possible explanation for this finding is that, because bananas have been cultivated in southern KZN for longer than in Tzaneen, more non-pathogens might have developed a mutualistic relationship with bananas in KZN.

IGS genotype grouping as opposed to AFLP's did not reveal a clear-cut correlation between *F. oxysporum* isolates, and their geographic origin or plant part origin. Some isolates from one site were restricted to a single IGS genotype, and others from both sites (Ramsgate and Tzaneen) shared the same IGS groups. Isolates from a particular site that occurred in the same IGS groups were not necessarily from the same plant or plant part. In fact, our results showed that the influence of plant part origin on IGS genotype grouping was very minimal. Several researchers have reported conflicting results in this regard. For example, genetic variation between isolates of *F. oxysporum* f. sp. *elaidis* have been linked to geographic origins with isolates originating from a specific site grouping together (Flood *et al.*, 1992), while there was no correlation between grouping and the geographic origin of 49 strains of *F. oxysporum* isolated from pea plants (Skovgaard *et al.*, 2002). Sharing of IGS genotypes by isolates obtained from different sites has previously been reported before (Appel and Gordon, 1995). Since this study was on endophytic fungi in two separated regions and from plantations that were initiated from tissue culture banana plants, we can rule out the possibility of introduction of the endophytes with planting material or long distance dispersal of soil particles and fungal spores. Absence or limited long distance dispersal of conidia may restrict gene flow, allowing for populations to evolve independently, and thus contributing to development of discrete fungal populations (Appel and Gordon, 1994). Probably, isolates from the two sites, which shared IGS genotypes, represent clonal lineages that occur irrespective of the geographic distances separating them (Appel and Gordon, 1995).

AFLP analysis proved useful in separating 57 isolates of *Fusarium* into two distinct clades according to the species, with *F. oxysporum* and *F. sacchari* clearly separated from the *F. solani* clades. Using AFLP, Abdel-Satar *et al.* (2003) were able to resolve five different *Fusarium* spp. into five distinct clusters according to each species. AFLP analysis successfully grouped the *F. oxysporum* isolates according to the plant part origin. The correlation between *F. oxysporum* isolates and the plant part origin further indicates species tissue specificity. In the current study however, AFLP analysis was not efficient in correlating the isolates of *F. oxysporum* with their geographic origin. The only exception was observed with isolates of *F. oxysporum* from Kiepersol, which formed a distinct sub-clade within the *F. oxysporum* main clade as would be expected of endophytes that co-evolve with plants over time, and that are selected to persist and form compatible long-lasting associations with bananas. In a previous investigation involving *F. oxysporum* f. sp. *lentis* no correlation was observed between 32 isolates and their geographic origin (Belabid *et al.*, 2004). The findings obtained in this study are difficult to explain, but may be due to differences in plantation age in the different sites. Banana cultivation in Kiepersol has been going on for longer periods of time than in Ramsgate and Tzaneen (Altus Viljoen pers. comm.) and this may explain why isolates from this site grouped together. In well-established agronomic systems, limited genetic diversity has been observed between plants and their endophytic counterparts possibly due to a constant environment, which ensures continual persistence of the association. However, short-term establishments for annual crops, as opposed to perennial crops such as banana, may prevent the formation of stable compatible plant-endophyte combinations (Saikkonen *et al.*, 2004). The *F. solani* isolates, which grouped into two distinct clades probably represent phylogenetic species within the *F. solani* species complex (O'Donnell, 2000; Geiser *et al.*, 2004).

Endophytic fungi have recently gained popularity as possible biological control agents of crop pests and diseases and may act in several ways; through metabolite production, competition for nutrients and ecological niches, and/or induced resistance (Sikora *et al.*, 2003; Schulz and Boyle 2005). Whether variation in endophyte genotypes can be linked to biologically important traits, such as pathogenicity or aggressiveness against pests and diseases and variations in metabolite production remains to be determined (Woo *et al.*, 1998). AFLP analysis has also been useful in generating molecular markers that are linked to genes of biological interest in plants such as barley (Karakousis *et al.*, 2003) and the wheat fungus, *Mycosphaerella graminicola* (Kema *et al.*, 2002) might therefore be useful in

developing molecular markers for studying the dynamics and persistence of introduced agents and in tracking of the isolates in plants.

The current study has demonstrated the diversity in *Fusarium* endophytes. We have shown that different *Fusarium* spp. may occur as endophytes in crops other than those that they are known to be pathogenic to, possibly establishing mutualistic associations with the host plants. Different endophytic *Fusarium* species appear to have preferences for certain plant parts. The potential for using endophytic *Fusarium* spp. as an alternative or complementary pest and disease control option in banana is promising and requires further investigation.

References

- Abdel-Satar, MA., Khalil, M.S., Mohamed, I.N., Abd-Esalam, K.A. and Verreet, J.A. (2003). Molecular phylogeny of *Fusarium* species by AFLP fingerprint. *African Journal of Biotechnology* 2: 51-55.
- Alves-Santos, F.M., Benito, E.P., Elsave, A.P. and Diaz-Minguez, J.M. (1999). Genetic diversity of *Fusarium oxysporum* strains from common bean fields in Spain. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* 65: 3335-3340.
- Appel, D.J. and Gordon, T.R. (1994). Local and regional variation in populations of *Fusarium oxysporum* from agricultural fields. *Phytopathology* 84: 786-791.
- Appel, D.J. and Gordon, T.R. (1995). Intraspecific variation within populations of *Fusarium oxysporum* based on RFLP analysis of the intergenic spacer region of the rDNA. *Experimental Mycology* 19: 120-128.
- Azevedo, Jr., J.L., Walter, M., Pereira, J.O. and Araújo, W.L. (2000). Endophytic microorganisms: a review on insect control and recent advances on tropical plants. *Electronic Journal of Biotechnology* 3: 40-65.
- Belabid, L., Baum, M., Fortas, Z., Bouznad, Z. and Eujayl, I. (2004). Pathogenic and genetic characterization of *Fusarium oxysporum* f. sp. *lentis* by RAPD and AFLP analysis. *African Journal of Biotechnology* 3: 25-31.
- Booth, C. (1971). "The genus *Fusarium*". Commonwealth Mycological Institute, Surrey England. p237.
- Brown, K.B., Hyde, K.D. and Guest, D.L. (1998). Preliminary studies on endophytic fungal communities of *Musa acuminata* species complex in Hong Kong and Australia. *Fungal Diversity* 1: 27-51.
- Carroll, G.C. and Carroll, F.E. (1978). Studies on the incidence of coniferous needle endophytes in the Pacific Northwest. *Canadian Journal of Botany* 56: 3034-3043.
- Carroll, G.C., (1988). Fungal endophytes in stems and leaves: from latent pathogen to mutualistic symbiont. *Ecology* 69: 2-9.
- Daneel, M., de Jager, K., van den Berg, I., Desmet, M. and De Waele, D. (2004). Occurrence of nematodes on common cultivars of banana in South Africa. Abstracts, 1st International Congress on Musa: harnessing research to improve livelihoods, Penang, Malaysia. p118.
- de Graaf, J., Viljoen, A. and Govender, P. (2004). Efficacy of pseudostem and pheromone traps against *Cosmopolites sordidus* (Germar) in South Africa. Abstracts, 1st

- International Congress on *Musa*: harnessing research to improve livelihoods, Penang, Malaysia. p140.
- Ciegler, A., Klich, M. and Lee, L. (1982). Inhibition of expression of *Fusarium semitectum* and other fungi in immature cottonseed. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* 44: 351-354.
- Edel, V., Steinberg, C., Avelange, I., Laguerre, G. and Alabouvette, C. (1995). Comparison of three molecular methods for the characterization of *Fusarium oxysporum* strains. *Phytopathology* 85: 579-585.
- Elias, K.S., Schneider, R.W. and Lear, M.M. (1991). Analysis of vegetative compatibility groups in nonpathogenic populations of *Fusarium oxysporum* isolated from symptomless tomato roots. *Canadian Journal of Botany* 69: 2089-2094.
- Felsenstein, J. (1985). Confidence intervals of phylogenetics; an approach for using bootstrap. *Evolution* 39: 783-791.
- Fisher, P.J. and Petrini, O. (1992). Fungal saprobes and pathogens as endophytes of rice (*Oryza sativa* L.). *New Phytologist* 120: 137-143.
- Fisher, P.J., Petrini, O. and Lappin Scott, H.M. (1992). The distribution of some fungal and bacterial endophytes in maize (*Zea mays* L.). *New Phytologist* 122: 299-305.
- Flood, J., Whitehead, D.S. and Cooper, R.M. (1992). Vegetative compatibility and DNA polymorphisms in *Fusarium oxysporum* f. sp. *elaidis* and their relationship to isolate virulence and origin. *Physiological and Molecular Plant Pathology* 41: 201-215.
- Ganguly, A. (1964). Wilt. In: Hughes, C.G., Abbott, E.V. and Wismer, C.A. (Eds). *Sugarcane diseases of the world, Vol 2.* Elsevier Publishing Company, Amsterdam, Netherlands. pp. 131-137.
- Geiser, D.M., Jimenez-Gasco, M.D., Kang, S.C., Makalowska, I., Veeraraghavan, N., Ward, T.J., Zhang, N., Kuldau, G.A., and O'Donnell, K. (2004). FUSARIUM-ID v. 1.0: A DNA sequence database for identifying *Fusarium*. *European Journal of Plant Pathology* 110: 473-479.
- Gold, C.S. and Dubois, T. (2005). Novel application methods for microbial control products: IITA's research against banana weevil and burrowing nematode. *Biocontrol News and Information* 26N: 86-89.
- Gordon, T.R. and Okamoto, D. (1991). Variation within and between populations of *Fusarium oxysporum* based on vegetative compatibility and mitochondrial DNA. *Canadian Journal of Botany* 70: 1211-1217.

- Griesbach, M. (2000). Occurrence of mutualistic fungal endophytes in bananas (*Musa* species) and their potential as biocontrol agents of the banana weevil *Cosmopolites sordidus* (Germar) (Coleoptera: Cuculionidae) in Uganda. PhD thesis, University of Bonn, Bonn, Germany. p94.
- Groenewald, S., Van den Berg, N., Marasas, W.F.O. and Viljoen, A. (2006). The application of high- throughput AFLP's in assessing genetic diversity in *Fusarium oxysporum* f. sp. *cubense*. Mycological Research 110: 397-305.
- Hallman, J. and Sikora, R.A. (1994). Influence of *Fusarium oxysporum*, a mutualistic fungal endophyte on *Meloidogyne incognita* infection of tomato. Journal of Plant Disease and Protection 101: 475-481.
- INIBAP, (2003). Just how far are bananas from extinction? INIBAP publication http://www.futureharvest.org/pdf/Banana_final.pdf.
- Karakousis, A., Gustafor, J.P., Chalmers, K.J., Barr, A.R. and Langridge, P. (2003). A consensus map of barley integrating SSR, RFLP and AFLP markers. *Australian Journal of Agricultural Research* 54: 1173-1183.
- Kema, G.H.J., Goodwin, S.B., Hamza, S., Verstappen, E.C.P., Cavaletto, J.R., Van der Lee, T.A.J., de Weerd, M., Bonants, P.J.M. and Waalwijk, C. (2002). A combined amplified fragment length polymorphism and randomly amplified polymorphism DNA genetic linkage map of *Mycosphaerella graminicola*, the Septoria Triticum leaf blotch pathogen of wheat. *Genetics* 161: 1497-1505.
- Latch, G.C.M. (1993). Physiological interactions of endophytic fungi and their hosts. Biotic stress tolerance imparted to grasses by endophytes. *Agriculture, Ecosystems and Environment* 44: 143-156.
- Mc Farlane, S.A. and Rutherford, R.S. (2005). *Fusarium* species isolated from sugarcane in KwaZulu-Natal and their effect on *Eldana saccharina* (Lepidoptera-Pyralidae) development *in vitro*. In: Abstracts 79th Annual South Africa Sugar Technologists Association (SASTA) congress, South Africa, 19-22 July .
- Moore, N.Y., Bentley, S., Legg, K.G. and Jones, D.R. (1995). Fusarium wilt of banana. *Musa Disease Fact Sheet N^o. 5*. INIBAP, Montpellier, France.
- Mourichon, X., Carlier, J. and Fourié, E. (1997). Sigatoka leaf spot diseases. *Musa Disease Fact Sheet N^o. 8*. INIBAP, Montpellier, France.
- Myburg, A.A., Remington, D.L., O'Malley, D.M., Sederoff, R.R. and Whetten, R.W. (2001). High throughput AFLP analysis using infrared dye-labelled primers and an automated DNA sequencer. *Biotechniques* 30: 348-357.

- Nel, B., Steinberg, C., Labuschagne, N. and Viljoen, A. (2006a). Isolation and characterization of non-pathogenic *Fusarium oxysporum* isolates from the rhizosphere of healthy banana plants. *Plant Pathology* 55: 207-216.
- Nel, B., Steinberg, C., Labuschagne, N. and Viljoen, A. (2006b). The potential of non-pathogenic *Fusarium oxysporum* and other biological control organisms for suppressing Fusarium wilt of banana. *Plant Pathology* 55: 217-223.
- Nelson, P.E. and Toussoun, T.A. (1986). Isolating, identifying and producing inoculum of pathogenic species of *Fusarium*. In: Hickey, K.D. (Ed). *Methods of evaluating pesticides for control of plant pathogens*. American Phytopathological Society Press. St Paul, MN. pp.54-59.
- Nelson, P.E., Toussoun, T.A. and Marasas, W.F.O. (1983). *Fusarium species. An illustrated manual for identification*. The Pennsylvania State University Press, Pennsylvania. p193.
- Niere, B. (2001). Significance of nonpathogenic isolates of *Fusarium oxysporum* Schlecht: Fries for the biological control of the burrowing nematode *Radopholus similis* (Cobb) Thorne on tissue cultured banana. PhD thesis. University of Bonn, Bonn, Germany. p118.
- O'Donell, K. (2000). Molecular phylogeny of the *Nectria haematococca-Fusarium solani* species complex. *Mycologia* 92: 919-938.
- O'Donell, K., Kistler, H.C., Cigelnik, E. and Ploetz, R.C. (1998). Multiple evolutionary origins of the fungus causing Panama disease of banana. Concordant evidence from nuclear and mitochondrial gene genealogies. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, USA*. 95:2044-2049.
- Pereira, J.O., Carneiro-Vieira, M.L. and Azavedo, J.L. (1999). Endophytic fungi from *Musa acuminata* and their reintroduction into axenic plants. *World Journal of Microbiology and Biotechnology* 15: 37-40.
- Petrini, O. (1986). Taxonomy of endophytic fungi of aerial plant tissues. In: Fokkema N.J. and Van Den Heuvel, J. (Eds). *Microbiology of the phyllosphere*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge. pp.175-187.
- Petrini, O. (1996). Ecological and physiological aspects of host-specificity in endophytic fungi. In: Redlin, S.C. and Carris, J.M. (Eds). *Endophytic fungi in grasses and woody plants*. American Phytopathological Society Press. St Paul, MN. pp.87-100.
- Photita, W., Lumyong, S., Lumyong, P. and Hyde, K.D. (2001). Endophytic fungi of wild banana (*Musa acuminata*) at Doi Suthep Pui National Park, Thailand. *Mycological Research* 105: 1508-1513.

- Pocasangre, L., Sikora, R.A., Vilich, V. and Schuster, R.P. (1999). Survey of endophytic fungi from Central America and screening for biological control of the burrowing nematode (*Radopholus similis*). *Acta Horticulturae* 531: 283-289.
- Raeder, U. and Broda, P. (1985). Rapid preparation of DNA from filamentous fungi. *Letters in Applied Microbiology* 1: 17-20.
- Rao, G.P., and Agnihotri, V.P. (2000). Wilt. In: Rott, P., Bailey, R., Comstock, J.C., Croft, B. and Saumtally, S. (Eds). *A guide to sugarcane diseases*. CIRAD/ISSCT, Montpellier, France. pp.193-197.
- Rodrigues, K.F. and Samuels, G.J. (1990). Preliminary study of endophytic fungi in tropical palm. *Mycological Research* 94: 827-830.
- Saikkonen, K., Wäli, P., Helander, M. and Faeth, S.H. (2004). Evolution of endophyte-plant symbioses. *Trends in Plant Science* 9: 275-280.
- SAS Institute (1989). *SAS/STAT User's Guide, Version 6 Fourth Edition Volume 1*. SAS Institute, Cary, USA. p943.
- Saubois, A., Laforet, P.E., Nepote, M.C. and Wagner, M.L. (1999). Mycological evaluation of a sorghum grain of Argentina, with emphasis on the characterization of *Fusarium* species. *Food Microbiology* 16: 435-445.
- Schardl, C.L., Leuchtman, A. and Spiering, M.J. (2004). Symbioses of grasses with seedborne fungal endophytes. *Annual Review of Plant Biology* 55: 315-340.
- Schulz, B. and Boyle, C. (2005). The endophytic continuum. *Mycological Research* 109: 661-686.
- Sokal, R.R. and Rohlf, F.J. (1995). *Biometry. The principles and practice of statistics in biological research*. 3rd ed. W.H. Freeman and Co New York. p950.
- Siegel, R.W., Latch, C.G.M. and Johnson, M.C.V. (1987). Fungal endophytes of grasses. *Annual Review of Phytopathology* 25: 293-315.
- Sikora, R., Niere, B. and Kimenju, J. (2003). Endophytic microbial diversity and plant nematode management in African Agriculture. In: Neuenschwander, P., Borgemeister, C. and Langewald, J. (Eds). *Biological control in IPM systems in Africa*. CAB International. Wallingford. pp.179-192.
- Skovgaard, K., Bodker, L. and Rosendahl, S. (2002). Population structure and pathogenicity of members of the *Fusarium oxysporum* complex isolated from soil and root necrosis of pea (*Pisum sativum* L.). *FEMS Microbiology Ecology* 42: 367-374.

- Stover, R.H. (1981). Fusarium diseases in the tropics. In: Nelson, P.E., Toussoun, T.A. and Cook, R.J. (Eds). Fusarium: Diseases, Biology and Taxonomy. The Pennsylvania State University Press, Pennsylvania. pp.114-128.
- SurrIDGE, A.K.J., Viljoen, A., Crous, P.W. and Wehner, F.C. (2003). Identification of the pathogen associated with sigatoka disease of banana in South Africa. Australasian Plant Pathology 32: 27-31.
- Swofford, D.L. (2002). PAUP*: Phylogenetic analysis using parsimony (*and other methods). Version 4. Sinauer Associates, Sunderland, MA.
- Tan, R.X. and Zou, W.X. (2001). Endophytes: a rich source of functional metabolites. Natural Products Reports 18: 448-459.
- Ury, H.K. (1976). A comparison of four procedures for multiple comparisons among means (pairwise contrasts) for arbitrary sample sizes. Technometrics 18: 89-97.
- Vos, P., Hogers, R., Bleeker, M., Reijans, M., Van de Lee, T., Hornes, M., Frijters, A., Pot, J., Peleman, J., Kuiper, M. and Zabeau, M. (1995). AFLP: a new technique for DNA fingerprinting. Nucleic Acids Research 23: 4407-4414.
- Woo, S.L., Norviello, C. and Lorito, M. (1998). Sources of molecular variability and applications in characterization of plant pathogen *Fusarium oxysporum*. In: Bridge, P.D., Couteaudier, Y. and Clarkson, J.M. (Eds). Molecular variability of fungal pathogens CAB International. Wallingford. pp. 187-208.
- Woo, S.L., Zoina, A., Del Sorbo, G., Lorito, M., Nanni, B., Scala, F. and Noviello, C. (1996). Characterization of *Fusarium oxysporum* f. sp. *phaseoli* by pathogenic races, VCGs, RFLPs and RAPD. Phytopathology 86: 966-973.

Figure 1. Schematic representation of PCR-restriction fragment length polymorphism patterns after digestion of the intergenic spacer region of the ribosomal DNA of 46 isolates of endophytic *Fusarium oxysporum* with the restriction enzymes *Hae*III, *Msp*I, *Rsa*I and *Hinf*I.

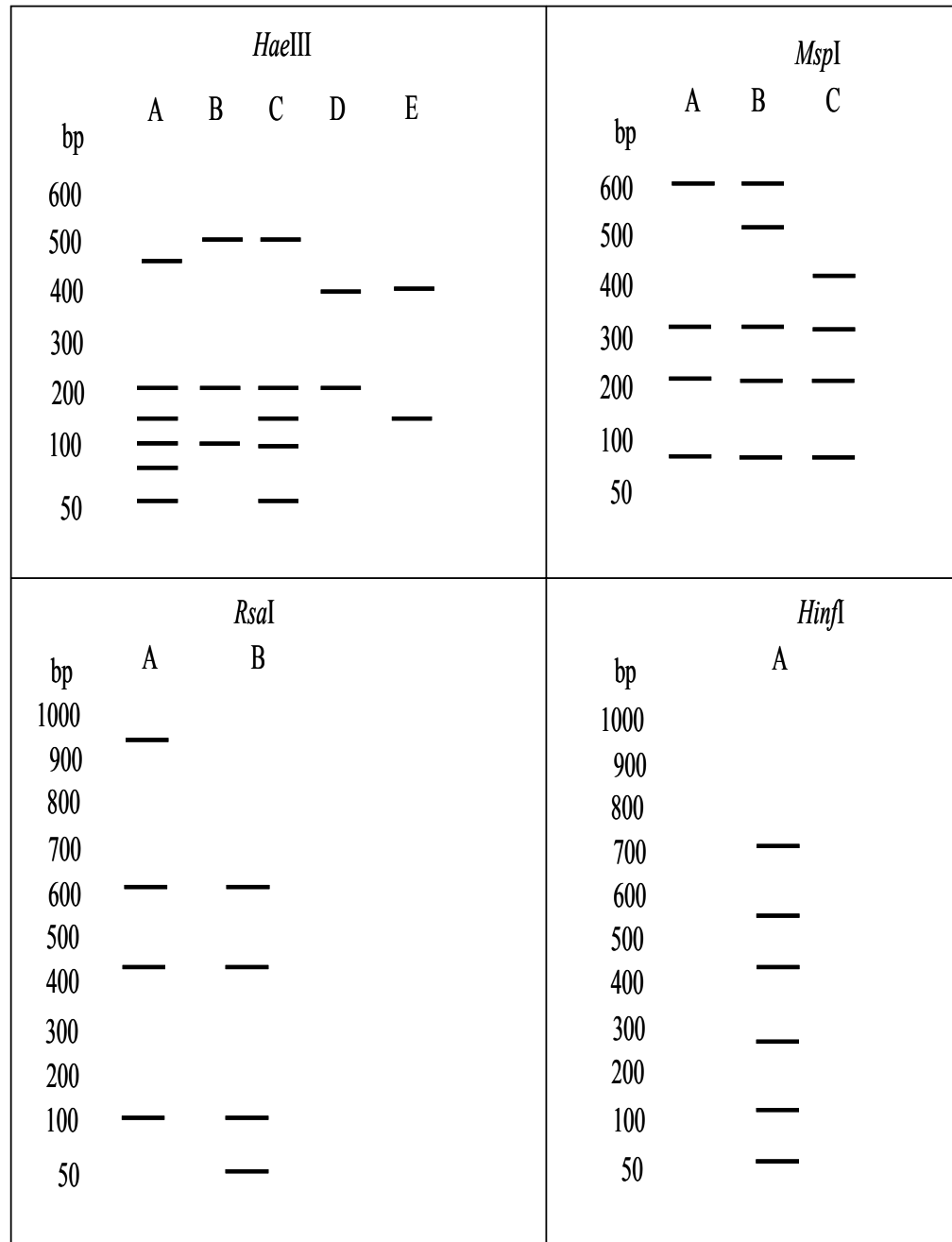


Figure 2. Phylogram inferred from amplified fragment length polymorphism analysis showing genetic relationship of 57 endophytic *Fusarium* isolates from banana root, rhizome and pseudostem base tissues. Distance analysis included neighbor joining as a tree building algorithm and a bootstrap of 1000 replicates. Bootstrap values are indicated above nodes, values less than 50% are not shown. The *Fusarium* isolates were obtained from Tzaneen, Ramsgate, and Kiepersol in South Africa and are designated with the prefix SAK, SAT, and KIP respectively

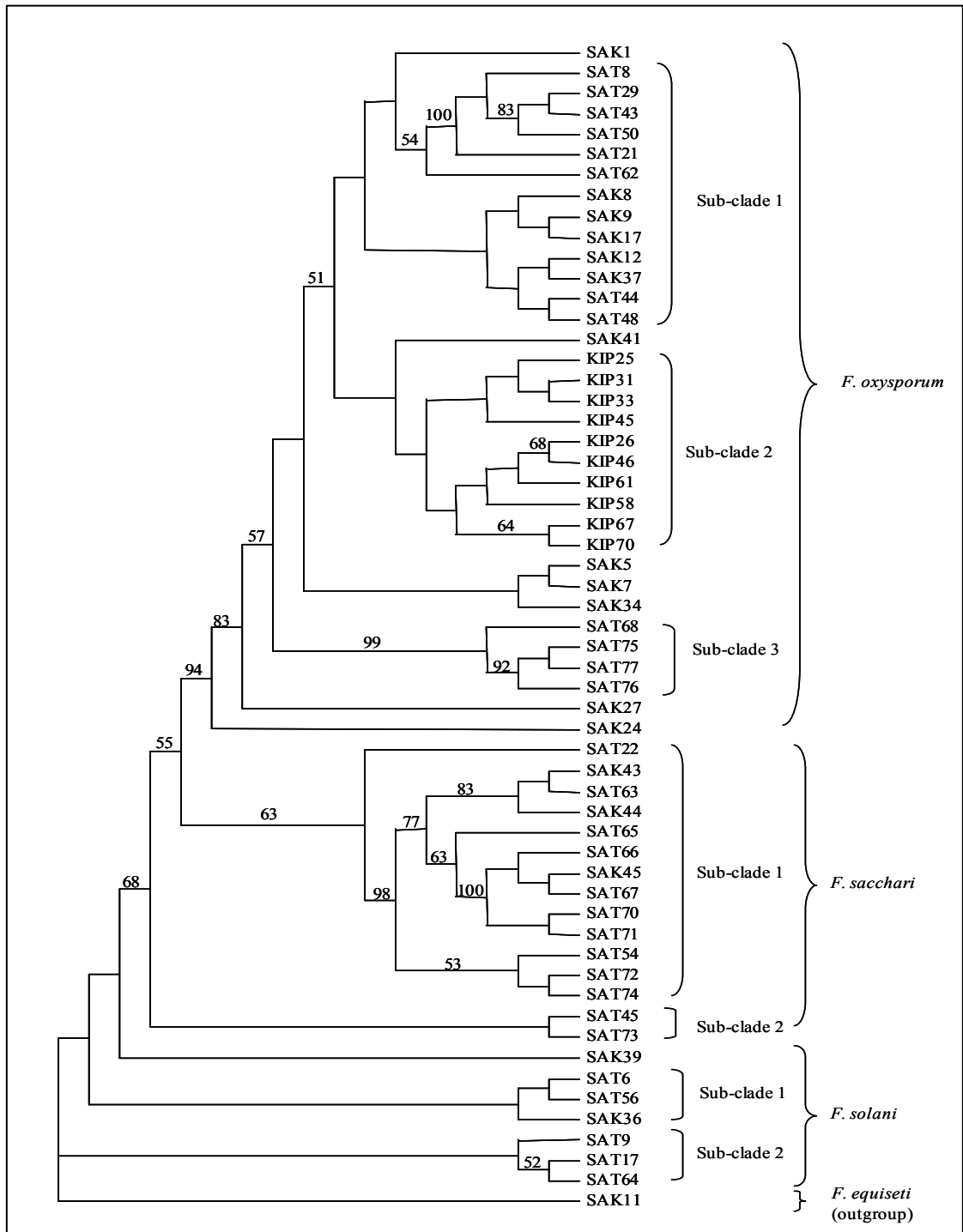


Table 1. Geographic origin of 57 endophytic isolates of *Fusarium* spp. from roots, rhizomes and pseudostem base tissues of Cavendish banana plants (*Musa* spp. AAA) in South Africa used for amplified fragment length polymorphism analysis.

Collectors no. ^a	CAV no. ^b	Species	GenBank accession number	Geographic origin ^c	Plant tissue
KIP25	CAV 542	<i>F. oxysporum</i>	DQ465926	Kiepersol	Root
KIP26	CAV 543	<i>F. oxysporum</i>		Kiepersol	Root
KIP31	CAV 546	<i>F. oxysporum</i>		Kiepersol	Root
KIP33	CAV 548	<i>F. oxysporum</i>		Kiepersol	Root
KIP45	CAV 552	<i>F. oxysporum</i>	DQ465927	Kiepersol	Root
KIP46	CAV 553	<i>F. oxysporum</i>		Kiepersol	Root
KIP58	CAV 559	<i>F. oxysporum</i>		Kiepersol	Root
KIP61	CAV 561	<i>F. oxysporum</i>		Kiepersol	Root
KIP67	CAV 563	<i>F. oxysporum</i>		Kiepersol	Root
KIP70	CAV 566	<i>F. oxysporum</i>		Kiepersol	Root
SAK1	CAV 722	<i>F. oxysporum</i>		Ramsgate	Root
SAK12		<i>F. oxysporum</i>		Ramsgate	Root
SAK17		<i>F. oxysporum</i>		Ramsgate	Root
SAK24	CAV 735	<i>F. oxysporum</i>	DQ465929	Tzaneen	Outer rhizome
SAK27		<i>F. oxysporum</i>		Ramsgate	Root
SAK34		<i>F. oxysporum</i>		Ramsgate	Root
SAK37		<i>F. oxysporum</i>		Ramsgate	Root
SAK41	CAV 754	<i>F. oxysporum</i>		Ramsgate	Root
SAK5	CAV 725	<i>F. oxysporum</i>	DQ465928	Ramsgate	Root
SAK7	CAV 727	<i>F. oxysporum</i>		Ramsgate	Root
SAK8	CAV 728	<i>F. oxysporum</i>		Ramsgate	Root
SAK9		<i>F. oxysporum</i>		Ramsgate	Root
SAT21	CAV 761	<i>F. oxysporum</i>		Tzaneen	Root
SAT29	CAV 766	<i>F. oxysporum</i>		Tzaneen	Root
SAT43	CAV 771	<i>F. oxysporum</i>		Tzaneen	Root
SAT44	CAV 772	<i>F. oxysporum</i>		Tzaneen	Root
SAT48	CAV 774	<i>F. oxysporum</i>	DQ465930	Tzaneen	Root
SAT50	CAV 776	<i>F. oxysporum</i>		Tzaneen	Root
SAT62	CAV 784	<i>F. oxysporum</i>		Tzaneen	Root
SAT68	CAV 189	<i>F. oxysporum</i>		Tzaneen	Inner rhizome
SAT75		<i>F. oxysporum</i>	DQ465931	Tzaneen	Pseudostem base
SAT76		<i>F. oxysporum</i>	DQ465932	Tzaneen	Pseudostem base
SAT77		<i>F. oxysporum</i>	DQ465933	Tzaneen	Pseudostem base
SAT8	CAV 750	<i>F. oxysporum</i>		Tzaneen	Root
SAK43		<i>F. sacchari</i>	DQ465944	Ramsgate	Inner rhizome
SAK44	CAV 1673	<i>F. sacchari</i>	DQ465943	Ramsgate	Pseudostem base
SAK45		<i>F. sacchari</i>	DQ465945	Tzaneen	Pseudostem base
SAT22	CAV 762	<i>F. sacchari</i>	DQ465934	Tzaneen	Root
SAT54	CAV 778	<i>F. sacchari</i>	DQ465935	Tzaneen	Outer rhizome
SAT63	CAV 1665	<i>F. sacchari</i>	DQ465936	Tzaneen	Inner rhizome
SAT65	CAV 1666	<i>F. sacchari</i>	DQ465937	Tzaneen	Pseudostem base
SAT66	CAV 1667	<i>F. sacchari</i>	DQ465938	Tzaneen	Pseudostem base

SAT67	CAV 1668	<i>F. sacchari</i>	DQ465939	Tzaneen	Inner rhizome
SAT71	CAV 1671	<i>F. sacchari</i>	DQ465941	Tzaneen	Inner rhizome
SAT72	CAV 1672	<i>F. sacchari</i>	DQ465942	Tzaneen	Inner rhizome
SAT73		<i>F. sacchari</i>	DQ465946	Tzaneen	Inner rhizome
SAT74		<i>F. sacchari</i>	DQ465947	Tzaneen	Pseudostem base
SAT70	CAV 1670	<i>F. sacchari</i>	DQ465940	Tzaneen	Inner rhizome
SAK36	CAV 740	<i>F. solani</i>	DQ465948	Ramsgate	Root
SAK39	CAV 742	<i>F. solani</i>	DQ465949	Ramsgate	Root
SAT17	CAV 759	<i>F. solani</i>	DQ465952	Tzaneen	Root
SAT45	CAV 773	<i>F. solani</i>		Tzaneen	Root
SAT56	CAV 780	<i>F. solani</i>	DQ465953	Tzaneen	Root
SAT6	CAV 748	<i>F. solani</i>	DQ465950	Tzaneen	Root
SAT64		<i>F. solani</i>	DQ465954	Tzaneen	Pseudostem base
SAT9	CAV 751	<i>F. solani</i>	DQ465951	Tzaneen	Root
SAK11	CAV 729	<i>F. equiseti</i>	DQ465925	Ramsgate	Outer rhizome

^a Collectors numbers designates the isolate code given after primary isolation.

^b CAV numbers designate codes for the fungal cultures deposited in the FABI culture collection, University of Pretoria, Pretoria, South Africa.

^c Geographic site from which banana plants were sampled; endophytic *F. oxysporum* isolates from Kiepersol were not isolated in the current study but were obtained from the FABI culture collection.

Table 2. Incidence (%) of endophytic *Fusarium* spp. isolated from different plant parts of Cavendish bananas (*Musa* spp. AAA) in Ramsgate and Tzaneen, South Africa.

Species	Plant part									Geographic origin						Total ^b	
	Root			Rhizomes ^a			Pseudostem bases			Ramsgate			Tzaneen			n	%
	n	%		n	%		n	%		n	%		n	%			
<i>F. oxysporum</i>	45	32.8	a	3	2.1	a	3	2.1	a	24	17.1	a	28	20.0	c	52	37.4
<i>F. solani</i>	23	16.4	b	8	5.7	a	3	2.1	a	7	5.0	b	27	19.2	c	34	24.2
<i>F. sacchari</i>	1	0.7	c	5	3.6	a	8	5.7	a	2	1.4	b	12	8.5	ab	14	10.0
<i>F. semitectum</i>	0	0.0	c	10	7.1	a	5	3.6	a	5	3.5	b	10	7.1	ab	15	10.7
<i>F. subglutinans</i>	1	0.7	c	2	1.4	a	8	5.7	a	1	0.7	b	9	6.4	ab	10	7.1
<i>F. dimerum</i>	10	7.1	b	1	0.7	a	0	0.0	b	1	0.7	b	10	7.1	a	11	7.8
<i>F. equiseti</i>	0	0.0		3	2.1	a	0	0.0	b	2	1.4	b	1	0.7		3	2.1
<i>F. proliferatum</i>	0	0.0		0	0.0		1	0.7		0	0.0		1	0.7		1	0.7
Total	80	57.7		32	22.7		28	19.9		42	29.8		98	69.7		140	100

Within each plant part or site, incidence (isolation frequencies) of the different *Fusarium* spp. followed by the same letter are not statistically different at $P < 0.0051$ after the Dunn Sidak correction.

Table 3. Intergenic spacer (IGS) region groups of 46 *Fusarium oxysporum* isolates from Cavendish banana (*Musa* spp. AAA) roots from two banana growing regions in South Africa that were subjected to PCR-restriction fragment length polymorphism analysis with four restriction enzymes *Hae*III, *Msp*I, *Rsa*I and *Hinf*I.

IGS group	Isolates ^a	Percentage ^b	Restriction enzyme			
			<i>Hae</i> III	<i>Msp</i> I	<i>Rsa</i> I	<i>Hinf</i> I
1	SAK1*, 3, 4, 16, 20, 22, 27*, 30, 35 & 37 SAT 2, 10, 16, 19, 21*, 28, 29*, 31, 34, 41, 43*, 49, 50*, 52, 61 & 62*	56.5	A	A	A	A
2	SAK 12* & 14	4.3	A	A	B	A
3	SAK 8* & SAT 8*	4.3	A	B	A	A
4	SAK 2, 5 & 15*	6.5	B	A	A	A
5	SAK 7*, 17*, 23 & 24* SAT 3, 14 & 48*	15.2	B	A	B	A
6	SAK 6 & 9*	4.3	C	B	A	A
7	SAK 41*	2.1	D	A	A	A
8	SAK 34*	2.1	D	A	B	A
9	SAT 12 & 44*	4.3	E	C	A	A

^aDesignation of isolates used in the PCR-RFLP analysis. Isolates with the prefix SAK were isolated from Ramsgate, SAT from Tzaneen. *Fusarium oxysporum* isolates with an asterisk were selected from each IGS genotype for AFLP analysis.

^b Percentage of total isolates in that particular IGS genotype

Summary

Radopholus similis is one of the key pests of banana in the East African highlands. Nematode damage results in large crop and yield losses. Although control of this pest had mainly relied on the use of clean planting material, re-infestation of plants in the field remains a critical concern. Alternative management options such as the use of fungal endophytes may be used to provide protection and extend plant life. In this thesis, the objective was to identify endophytic isolates of *Fusarium* spp. and especially *F. oxysporum* with potential for *R. similis* control in tissue culture banana plantlets and to study the interactions between the host plant, nematode and the endophyte. Isolates were screened both *in vitro* and *in vivo* and the most promising isolates were studied further to elucidate when, where and how the endophytes suppressed *R. similis*.

In the first phase of this research, a total of 35 endophytic *Fusarium* spp. isolates were screened for the production of secondary metabolites antagonistic to *R. similis in vitro*. All isolates tested demonstrated some level of *in vitro* antagonistic activity on the mobility of *R. similis* males, females and juveniles. The percentage of immobilized nematodes increased with increase in the length of exposure time and the concentration of the culture filtrates. An interesting finding of this research was that male *R. similis* were more sensitive to culture filtrate treatment than females. The method of using culture filtrates to identify isolates with antagonistic effects against the nematode has the advantage of being rapid, thus saving time and allows for selection of the most promising isolates for *in planta* evaluation. The actual metabolites produced by the isolates in culture were not determined in this study and warrant further investigations.

In the second part of this research, nine *F. oxysporum* isolates that showed good *in vitro* antagonistic activity against *R. similis* were screened for nematode suppression in tissue culture banana plants. A local banana cultivar susceptible to *R. similis* was used in nine screen house experiments. Endophyte treatment did not affect nematode population densities significantly although there was a tendency for nematode populations in endophyte-treated plants to be lower than in the untreated control plants. Banana plant growth and nematode damage were also not influenced by endophyte treatment except in a few

experiments. The results obtained showed the effect of individual isolates on plant growth, nematode damage and density varied widely across repeat experiments. Despite the inconsistencies, three isolates, *V5W2*, *Eny1.13i* and *Eny7.11o* were identified as the most effective isolates. The reproducibility of the results obtained is questionable as control plants were also found to be infected by endophytic *F. oxysporum*. This research also raises a big question pertaining to the ability to monitor and track re-isolated endophytes. Thus proper endophyte marking techniques need to be developed for future experiments to compare the re-isolated endophytes with the original ones. Although the levels of nematode control afforded by endophytes may not be very high, the use of endophytes in tissue culture plants may complement the clean nature of the plants thereby boosting their ability to resist or tolerate nematode attack in the field.

The endophytes tested during the current study have shown ability to suppress *R. similis* in tissue culture banana plants. However, it is not known how, where and when the endophytes are most effective against the nematodes. In the third part of this research, the effects of three isolates, *V5W2*, *Eny1.31i* and *Eny7.11o* on the host preferences, root penetration and reproduction of *R. similis* in tissue culture banana plants were evaluated under laboratory and screen house conditions. Host preference tests provided evidence that nematodes were equally attracted to both endophyte-treated and untreated plants. Similarly, root penetration of banana plant roots by *R. similis* did not differ between endophyte-treated and untreated plants. Nematode reproduction which was assessed over a period coinciding with three nematode generations was however, influenced by endophyte treatment. Differences were observed during the second and third nematode generations with nematode reproduction rates being higher in the untreated compared to endophyte-treated plants. The results obtained demonstrate that the mechanism by which the fungal isolates control *R. similis* in the plant is mainly post-infectious, acting only after the plants have been infected and may possibly be through induced resistance in the plant against the nematode.

In the fourth part of this research, potential mechanism(s) through which endophytic isolates of *F. oxysporum* result in nematode suppression in tissue culture banana plants were studied. Nine isolates of *F. oxysporum* showed positive results for protease enzyme production but none showed chitinase and lipase activity. In split-root experiments, the densities of *R. similis* females, males, juveniles and the total nematode density were substantially lower in one half

of the split-root systems when the corresponding half was treated with one of the endophytic *F. oxysporum* isolates *V5W2*, *Eny1.131i* or *Eny7.11o*. To further investigate the role of induced resistance in nematode management by endophytes, the amounts and types of phenolic compounds were assessed in plants inoculated with isolate *V5W2*. Histological analysis showed the presence of phenolic cells in the cortex and central cylinder regions of roots and rhizomes. Although constitutive phenols occurred both in roots and corms of plants treated with isolate *V5W2* as well as untreated plants, the quantities increased over time in the endophyte-inoculated plants compared to the uninoculated plants. Higher amounts of total soluble phenolics were found in endophyte-treated than in untreated plants. Corm and root metabolite profiles of endophyte-treated and untreated plants did not differ. HPLC analysis revealed four major unidentified compounds, which were present in endophyte-treated as well as untreated plants. These results demonstrate that induction of systemic resistance by endophytic isolates of *F. oxysporum* may play a role in *R. similis* management and that treatment of plants with endophytes triggers the plant to increase synthesis of phenolic compounds. Further research needs to be conducted to identify the unknown compounds.

In the last part of this research, endophytic *Fusarium* spp. from roots, rhizomes and pseudostem bases of apparently healthy Cavendish banana plants from three sites in South Africa were assessed using morphological and PCR-RFLP and AFLP analyses. The objectives were to identify *Fusarium* endophytes in banana plants, study their relation to specific plant parts and determine the genetic diversity within and between the endophytes. From the isolations, *Fusarium oxysporum* was the predominant species isolated, followed by *Fusarium solani* and *Fusarium semitectum*. Tissue specificity was observed with *F. oxysporum* and *F. solani* being predominantly isolated from the roots whilst *F. semitectum*, *F. sacchari* and *F. subglutinans* were predominantly isolated from rhizomes and pseudostem bases. The *F. oxysporum* isolates from the roots were grouped into nine genotypes using PCR-RFLP analysis of the IGS region of the rDNA. Distance analysis of AFLP data of 57 *Fusarium* isolates resolved the isolates into two major clades: one consisting of the isolated *F. oxysporum* and the other of *F. sacchari*. *Fusarium oxysporum* isolates further grouped according to plant part origin while the *F. sacchari* and *F. solani* isolates grouped randomly. The results obtained demonstrated tissue specificity of endophytic *Fusarium* in Cavendish banana and also a wide inter- and intraspecific genetic variation among endophytic *Fusarium* isolates of banana in South Africa. The observed tissue specificity of various *Fusarium*

endophytes may be used in future biological control programs to target establishment of the endophytes most suited to the plants parts that require protection.